



THE MAKING OF TODAY'S WORLD



HUGHES



FROM THE BEGINNINGS OF CIVILIZATION MAN



CIVILIZATION



CRUSADES



RELIGION



ART·CULTURE



EARLY
NATIONS



PRE·HISTORIC



*Diana
Beveridge*

Diana Beveridge Joan Hunter

BUILT THE FOUNDA-



COMMERCE



EXPLORATION



& DISCOVERY



THE NEW WORLD



PROGRESS



LIBERTY
FOR ALL



A.D.

TION OF TODAY'S WORLD

to the school

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Painting by Fred Dana Marsh

Courtesy New Rochelle High School

BUILDING TODAY'S WORLD

The artist put New York City in the background and called this picture "Building Modern America." The workers here are, after all, but a type of workers in every civilized land who have contributed time, thought, and labor to make the world better or more comfortable for those who came after them than it was when they began their labors.

THE MAKING OF TODAY'S WORLD

BY

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PITTSBURGH PUBLIC SCHOOLS

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FOREWORD

The difficulty modern leaders find in making peace is all the evidence needed to show the importance of understanding the peoples of other lands and their relations with us. Only through mutual understanding can we expect the leaders throughout the world to exercise wisely the responsibilities that rest upon them, and to build a lasting peace.

The Making of Today's World is an effort to make such knowledge possible for high school students of today and to equip them to be useful and well-informed world citizens. It tells the story of the beginnings of our civilization centuries ago and of the expansion of that civilization until it has reached most parts of the world. Since we hope today's high school students will have plenty of other opportunities to study the history of their own country thoroughly, our emphasis in this book is on the story of other peoples.

But the part in world affairs which the United States of America has played in the past, and must accept today, is given the attention which it deserves. We need to have a strong sense of both American citizenship and world citizenship.

This book grew directly out of the classroom experience of pupils who are fair representatives of high school boys and girls everywhere. We have tried to talk with our readers as we would discuss matters of common interest in the classroom. We hope our story will give them an interest in the *Making of Today's World* which will stay with them after they finish their formal study of its history.

The vast volume of recorded information with reference to the making of today's world makes it necessary for us to select with care those features of the story which are most helpful in giving us an understanding of the way our civilization came to be what it is. We therefore shall not try to tell the details of military campaigns

and the names of kings and politicians except as they are necessary to an understanding of the great movements by which the people of the past fashioned the world in which they lived, and, whether they meant to do so or not, set the stage for men and women of later times.

Time plays a great part in any proper telling of the story of the past and the present. To help with the understanding of the relations of people and events to one another, time-graphs are placed at proper intervals throughout the book, and for each unit a list of important dates appears. Similar lists of significant names and terms are found, to use in review or to enable a student to make sure that the outstanding persons and events of the past have been properly impressed on his mind.

To supplement the material in the text, numerous suggestions are offered for further study and activity. Questions are placed here and there for students to think about, by way of applying to present times the facts they have been reading, and of understanding the reasons why those facts are important. More suggestions are offered for projects and activities and for supplementary reading than are likely to be possible for any class to use in full. But the way is open for selection of those items which seem to have special interest or for which reference material is available.

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THE MAKING OF TODAY'S WORLD

IMPORTANT DATES

Not everyone would pick these particular dates, but all of these certainly have definite significance.

B.C.

- c. 4000 City-states in the Nile and Tigris-Euphrates Valleys
- c. 3400 Menes unites upper and lower Egypt
- c. 2100 Hammurabi's code of laws
- c. 1250 Moses and the Ten Commandments
- 776 First recorded Olympic Games in Greece
- 753 Legendary date for the founding of Rome
- 586 Nebuchadnezzar carries the Jews into captivity
- c. 509 Rome becomes a republic
- 490 Battle of Marathon
- 461-431 Age of Pericles
- 336-323 Rule of Alexander the Great
- 146 Romans destroy Corinth and Carthage
- 44 Murder of Julius Caesar
- 31 B.C.-14 A.D. Rule of Augustus

A.D.

- 29 Crucifixion of Jesus
- 180 End of Marcus Aurelius' reign
- 313 Constantine's Edict of Milan
- 395 Final division of the Roman Empire
- 449 Beginning of Anglo-Saxon conquest of Britain
- 451 Defeat of Huns at Chalons
- 529 Publication of Justinian's code
- 622 Mohammed's Hegira
- 732 Defeat of Mohammedans at Tours
- 800 Charlemagne crowned emperor
- 900 Death of Alfred the Great
- 987 Hugh Capet King in France
- 1066 Normans conquer England
- 1077 Henry IV at Canossa

A.D.

- 1096-1099 First Crusade
- 1215 Signing of Magna Charta
- 1295 Model Parliament in England
- 1337-1453 Hundred Years' War
- c. 1450 Gutenberg's Printing Press
- 1453 Turks take Constantinople
- 1492 First voyage of Columbus
- 1517 Luther's ninety-five theses
- 1519-1522 Magellan's voyage around the world
- 1588 Defeat of Spanish Armada
- 1607 Founding of Jamestown
- 1648 Peace of Westphalia
- 1649 Execution of Charles I
- 1689 Bill of Rights in England
- 1763 Treaty of Paris
- 1767 Hargreaves' spinning jenny
- 1776 Declaration of independence of United States
- 1789 French Revolution
- 1803 Louisiana purchase
- 1814, 1815 Congress of Vienna
- 1823 Monroe Doctrine
- 1832 First British Reform Bill
- 1861 Italian Kingdom proclaimed
- 1867 Mutsuhito emperor of Japan
- 1870-1871 Franco-Prussian War
- 1879 Edison's electric light
- 1899 First Hague Conference
- 1903 Wright Brothers fly
- 1914-1918 World War I
- 1917 Bolshevik revolution
- 1920 First news message by radio
- 1933 Hitler German Führer
- 1939 World War II begins
- 1941 Jap attack on Pearl Harbor
- 1944 Invasion of Europe
- 1945 First use of the atomic bomb
- 1945 VE and VJ days
- 1945 Founding of United Nations
- 1949 North Atlantic Treaty (Pact)
- 1949 First free election in Germany since 1933



MEN BEFORE HISTORY

Ewing Galloway

This mural from the American Museum of Natural History shows a group of prehistoric hunters who have brought back as a trophy of their labors the stag which they have killed. From this picture you get some idea of the way people of the so-called Neolithic period dressed in the warmer seasons and of the weapons they used in hunting or fighting.

THE MAKING OF TODAY'S WORLD

I. FOUNDATIONS AND BACKGROUNDS

*"And step by step, since time began,
I see the steady gain of man."*

— WHITTIER

Today's world is a great world. So real and vivid are the impressions it makes upon us that today's life may seem the only life worth thinking about. Yet if our fathers and grandfathers, and their fathers and grandfathers, had lived differently from the way they did, we ourselves should probably not be doing what we are. The people who lived in the past helped to make the present. They laid the foundation for our own world.

Pointers for Our Study:

What is history, and what benefits ought it to bring to us?

What are some of the sources of our information about the past?

What are the main facts about world geography — for we must put in the right places the men and events that we study?

What races of men occupy the world — for history has been made by people?

Through what stages of progress have men passed?

What have we discovered or guessed about prehistoric people?

What did primitive men contribute as a foundation for our civilized life?

A. UNDERSTANDING HISTORY

1. What Is History? — Haven't you written history or told it? You did when you told about your trip to Washington or to Clayville Center, or when you wrote up the records of your Boy Scout hike. You and I are all the time making history and often telling it. Men like Theodore Roosevelt and Woodrow Wilson made and wrote history on a bigger scale. That is the chief difference

between them and ourselves as history-makers.

History is the story of what people have done or experienced in the past and of the way the events of the past have produced our present world. It has been called "a moving picture of human progress." It includes all that men have accomplished or planned, their hopes and fears, their ambitions, and their disappointments.

Studies which deal with the associations and activities of human

beings are called *social studies* or *social sciences*. *History* surely is one of them. *Geography*, *civics*, and *economics* are others, and we shall often call on them for help.

Find other definitions of history and work out one of your own. Are art and music included in history? Are sciences? laws? manufactures? morals?

2. Of What Use Is History? — "Why bother about dead ones?" we sometimes ask. Well, in the first place, these people



ANCIENT BEAUTY CULTURE

The ladies of ancient Egypt seem to have tried to make themselves attractive in much the same way as do girls and women of today. The lady seated in the chair is having her hair fixed by a maid, and another servant is pouring out something for her to drink. The lady holds in her hand a mirror to use now and then to see if the maid is doing a good job.

I FOUNDATIONS AND BACKGROUNDS

A period whose beginnings are timeless preceded the ages within which men have kept records. In that distant time the foundations of human history were laid.



THE MAKING OF TODAY'S WORLD¹

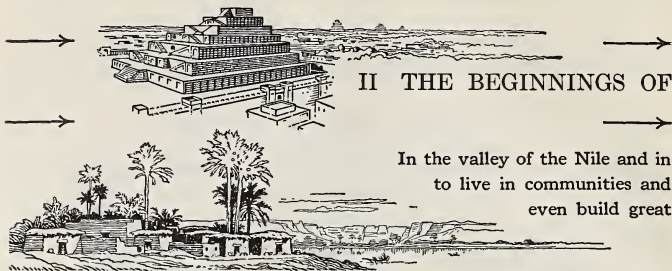
When human life begins, our story starts.

whose deeds history relates were very much alive at the time — some of them grown men and women, and some of them real boys and girls. By telling us about them, history renders many services.

1. *History gives us an acquaintance with the past* which enables us to think intelligently about the problems of today. We can profit by avoiding the mistakes of others and taking advantage of their successes. Former President Coolidge, in his autobiography, told about his study of history in his boyhood days — how it gave him a vision of the world when it was young and showed him how it grew. "It seems to me that it is almost impossible for those who have not traveled that road to reach a very clear conception of what the world now means," he said.

2. *History helps us to understand the people* of all ages and times. It should broaden our sympathies and enable us to judge men's difficulties, motives, and ideals fairly. We can see that people through the centuries have struggled for something better — to live more comfortably, or to be free from tyrants and masters.

¹ If you will survey as a whole this time-chart, which begins here and runs on through page 9, you will obtain an "overview" of the entire sweep of world history and at the same time discover the way this book is organized to deal with it. The title of each unit represents one of the great movements or periods in history. You will notice that often great movements were going on parallel to one another and should be studied with that fact clearly in mind. At the bottom of the chart on pages 4 to 9 are dates indicating the approximate time covered by each unit. You may be surprised to notice how many important topics seem to have been crowded into the last 500 years.



II THE BEGINNINGS OF

In the valley of the Nile and in
to live in communities and
even build great

4000 B.C.

3500

3000

T H E M A K I N G O F

Men now are keeping records of their

3. *History*, when properly studied, *encourages* us to seek the *truth* and gives us training in finding real facts about people and events. The true historian has no prejudices. He forms his opinions only after he has made use of all the information he can get. Too many of us fail to do that.

4. *History has great cultural value.* One who knows history can talk intelligently with cultured people, can read worth-while literature, appreciate the best music and art and the writings of great thinkers, and enjoy many of the finer things of life much more thoroughly than one who is not familiar with it.

"A child looks out into the world
And learns through the world to know himself;
For what the flight of time involves
May aptly be called a mirror
In which man sees his own deeds,
And what is there contained
Touches Youth deeply."

Translated by Professor Johnson from an old
German teacher, Christian Weise.

Courtesy of Charles Scribner's Sons

5. *The reading of history is a profitable and pleasant way to spend one's leisure time.* Much of history is as thrilling as any novel, and some of the finest stories ever written are founded upon his-

OUR CIVILIZATION



Mesopotamia, men have learned
have some comforts. They
memorials of themselves.



3000 B.C.

2500

2000

T O D A Y ' S W O R L D

deeds, but how slowly time creeps on!

torical facts. You may meet almost face to face the great men and women of all times as you read their letters, diaries, and addresses.

6. *History helps us to set up high ideals.* It tells us of men like Moses and Socrates and Alfred and Washington, and women like Florence Nightingale, who tried to help others to be happier or freer or better, and also of men like Sargon and Napoleon and Hitler, and women like Catherine de Medici (měd'ē chē), who were selfish, cruel dictators or hopeless blunderers. It asks of us, "Whom would you be like?"

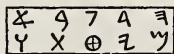
Are there many people to whom a knowledge of history would be of no use whatever? Why is it that people sometimes think history is uninteresting? If you read of a person or event of past times, can you, in your imagination, make that person or event live before you? Try to do so. How should the study of history make one a better citizen?

. 3. **How Do We Get History?** — How can a person living today write the story of a person or event of an earlier time? The answer is: by learning what men did or said at that time.

Articles were left behind by men who could not write anything themselves. Weapons and tools, tablets, statues, and other products of their labor have been preserved through the centuries, and give us some idea of the way they lived and worked. Such things we may call *material remains* or *relics*. In the picture on page 10 you see how they are sometimes discovered. From very ancient



THE BEGINNINGS OF OUR



Progress spreads over the whole
Men learn to work with copper, bronze,
Trade reaches the entire Mediter-

2000 B.C.

1500

1000

THE MAKING OF

Empires and smaller states rise and fall.

times, too, *traditions* have come down to us — stories passed on by word of mouth from father to son, from minstrel to listener, from priest to disciple, from one generation to another.

When we reach a stage where people can read and write, many more records are left than before. From such people we may get letters, diaries, copies of laws or other legal records, the messages of presidents and kings, and now, photographs, all of which help us to visualize the life of past days. All these we call *written records*. To some extent already, and much more in the future, we may have people's actual voices recorded by phonograph records and talking films.

These first-hand kinds of information we speak of as *original sources*. The next step is to put down in story form the facts and ideas that we get from them. This is where writers of history and makers of textbooks and encyclopedias come in. Their products are referred to as *secondary sources*. Most of us must depend on such secondary sources, for we do not have time to go back to the originals.

Is there anything in the possession of any members of your family which might be valuable to a historian? If you were to write a history of your own family or of the President of the United States, where would you go for information, and what sources might you draw upon for material? What kinds of sources do you consider most trustworthy?

We need to be careful about the impressions we obtain from original sources. We mustn't try to prove too much or jump too



III GIFTS OF GREECE TO THE



CIVILIZATION



MODERN
WORLD

Near East.
and iron.
ranean world.



IV HOW ROME
FORWARDED
CIVILIZATION



1000 B.C.

500

B.C.

T O D A Y ' S W O R L D

Then Greece and Rome blaze into glory.

suddenly at conclusions. A *fact* is an actual occurrence or condition; a *theory* is an idea about something or a notion of the way something happens. We may need to get together a good many separate facts before we have a right to work out a theory or to say that we have proved things to be thus and so.

How may *beliefs* or *opinions* differ from *facts*? Is it correct to speak of facts as "true" or "untrue"?

Here is a list of historical facts, printed in italics. Following each fact is an imagined conclusion. Tell in each case whether the conclusion is justified and why.

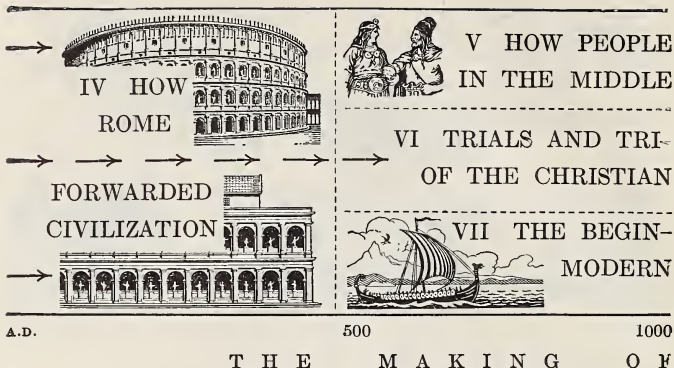
1. *A farmer, while plowing, unearthed a set of false teeth.* ∴ The Indians knew considerable about dentistry.

2. *When an Egyptian tomb was opened, many valuable and well-made articles of adornment were found.* ∴ The ancient Egyptians had expert workers with metals and jewelry.

3. *The Black River in Vermont left its banks one night and tore out a gully 300 feet wide and 150 feet deep for a considerable distance.* ∴ (1) It must have been a terrible flood. (2) We should not be too sure how long it takes to make changes in the face of the earth.

4. *A picture of Lincoln during the Civil War shows him with an unattractive shawl thrown over his shoulders.* ∴ (1) He was not over-particular about his personal appearance. (2) The government had not paid him his salary regularly. (3) He sometimes wore some of his wife's clothes.

How may a preface in a book help you to understand the author's object in writing the book or its usefulness for you? How important are pictures in a textbook? In what way may the explanation under a picture be helpful? If you want to find a particular topic in a book,



Mighty Rome falls. New developments go on side by side.

how will you go about it? When should you use the table of contents and when should you use the index? How may you make sure you are pronouncing names correctly?

4. How Do We Measure History? — Not only “what happened,” but “when” and “how long” may be important questions in history. If you take out of history the element of time, nothing is left except a mass of information almost impossible to digest. We must try to place persons and events in their proper time relation to one another. It would never do to get King Solomon, Julius Caesar, and George Washington living at the same hour!

Don’t let dates scare you. They are not nearly so hard to understand as football rules. Sometimes it is enough to know that a certain thing happened in a particular century, or “about” 3000 B.C. or 1540 A.D., for example. Some dates, however, are really guideposts on the road of history. Such dates we should get exactly right. It makes a big difference whether Columbus discovered America in 1492 or 1942 or 2419, just as it does whether your father’s income is \$7500 a month or \$75.00 or \$.0075.

But what does 1492 mean? It means 1492 *years* after the time when Christ was supposed to have been born.¹ The ancient

¹ The dates in the margins of some Bibles are not a part of the original records and are not to be depended upon historically. About 500 years after Jesus’ life in Palestine, a Roman churchman tried to reckon the time of Jesus’ birth; but he seems to have made a mistake in his figuring, so that Jesus was probably born in 4 or 5 B.C.

LIVED AGES		VIII THE AWAKENING OF WESTERN EUROPE	IX DIVISIONS AND WARS AMONG CHRISTIANS	XI OPENING NEW LANDS	XII FRENCH REVOLUTION	XIII NEW NATIONS	XIV A NEW ORDER	XV WORLD-WIDE ADVANCE	XVI THE GREAT CATASTROPHE	XVII FROM ONE WAR TO ANOTHER
UMPHS CHURCH				X MONARCHS OF THE 17TH AND 18TH CENTURIES						
NINGS OF NATIONS										
1000 A.D.		1500								2000
T O D A Y ' S W O R L D										

Events begin to crowd one another. Time moves with a rush.

Egyptians took the period from one flood of the Nile to the next as a convenient measure; and when people began to notice exactly the relation of the earth to the sun, the length of time from one point in that relation until the same point appeared again was a convenient way of reckoning; and so we have our *year*. Of course, the year has to be subdivided, and so do our months and our days. Can you imagine how these divisions started?

Copy this table and fill in the blanks. Do not write in this book.

_____ seconds make a _____	_____ years make a decade
_____ make an _____	_____ decades make a _____
_____ make a _____	_____ make a millennium.
_____ make a year	

Naturally people did not reckon dates backward before the birth of Christ. Each country had its own method of counting time, or system of *chronology*. Some reckoned from the reign of a particular king. The ancient Greeks counted from the first recorded occasion of their Olympic Games (776 B.C.). The Romans reckoned from the time when they thought their city had been founded (753 B.C.). Jewish people count for religious purposes from their reckoning of the creation of the world.

Exactly what do such expressions as B.C., A.D., and A.U.C. mean in this connection? Look up in such a reference book as the *World Almanac* the number of the present year according to different systems of reckoning. What is meant by saying that something happened "c. 1540" or "c. 1800"?

One way to represent history is by a *time-line*. For convenience, let an inch represent one thousand years, and let the end of a line be 2000 A.D. On this line mark the year when Columbus discovered America; the year when the independence of the United States was declared; 4000 B.C., when, many think, people began to keep historical records. Judging by the location of these marks, has the history of the United States occupied a long space in the recorded history of the human race?



UNCOVERING MEMORIALS OF ANCIENT LIFE

This party was working in the ruins of the ancient city of Carthage, in North Africa. You see how they carry away the dirt which they remove in the course of their excavations. Many of the relics these people are uncovering happen to be tombstones.

5. How Do We Organize History? — History covers so much ground that we may often need to refer to some part of it rather than to the whole field. We may classify it by *geography*, as when we speak of European History, American History, or World History. We may characterize it in accordance with the *topics* which are particularly emphasized, as economic, social, political, military, or religious. Even if we should try, we could not always keep these divisions separate and distinct, for many events may be looked at from several points of view.

What does each of the adjectives mean in the next to the last sentence above? Show why each of the following events might be mentioned under more than one of the kinds of history referred to: the coming of

the Pilgrims to New England; the invention of the cotton gin; the exodus of the Hebrews from Egypt; the making of the United States Constitution.

Another common division is from the standpoint of *time*. Everything before men kept records is *prehistoric*. *Ancient History* covers the period from the first recorded events to about 500 A.D., when the Roman Empire had fallen apart, although some prefer to extend it further. Then comes *Medieval History*, a period of seeming backwardness, when the old civilization had broken up and a new one had not yet clearly appeared. *Modern History* is the period in which one can readily trace the story of the nations which now appear on the map of the world. We may reckon its beginning with the discovery of America by Columbus in 1492. It is useless to argue about precise dates for the transition from one stage of history to another. Changes did not occur at just the same time in every country. History is continuous. "Men may come and men may go," but history goes on forever.

Would it help you to think of history as a great drama, many scenes of which have been given, but with many more to follow? You are one of the actors now. Name some people of today who you think will be mentioned in the history books in the year 2000.

A PROJECT TO CONTINUE THROUGH A YEAR

It would be interesting to start a time-chart or time-line which will allow, when finished, space for 6000 years (4000 B.C.—2000 A.D.). Several sheets of graph paper pasted together will do for this purpose. On your blackboard or on a sheet of squared paper several feet long construct a class chart. Add outstanding names and events as you learn about them. At this time show 4000 B.C.; the division between B.C. and A.D.; 800 A.D.; 1492 A.D.; and the present year. If you make the chart large enough, you may make it still more interesting by putting on it in appropriate places pictures and sketches of men, buildings, events, and the like. At various points in this book you will find time-graphs of millenniaums or centuries, which will be helpful.

B. GEOGRAPHY IN HISTORY

6. The Globe on Which We Live. — We read in the first words of the book of Genesis. "In the beginning God created the heavens and the earth." We are not told how far back that beginning was, and it would do us no particular good if we did know. Even a geologist, though he has studied rock formation, the work of winds

and waters, and the like, cannot be exact in his figures. His guesses are based on the supposition that changes have always taken place in the world at about the same speed as such changes now occur. Maybe they did and maybe they did not. Most geologists reckon the earth to be millions of years old.

A map of the earth's surface when land and water first took definite form would probably look much different from the way it does today. Four times great ice masses formed at the north, ground their way southward, and then melted. We can see today the marks of the movements of these *glaciers* in many parts



OLD BRONTOSAURUS © *Field Museum of Natural History*

This mural painting by Charles R. Knight pictures one of the largest of all prehistoric animals as he must have looked when he was alive. Remains of such animals as these have been found only in North America. Would you like to meet him? Why do you suppose such a monster has disappeared from the earth?

of North America and Europe. Indeed, we can tell their southern limits by the boulders and stones which they brought with them and left on the earth's surface. It is possible that the Great Lakes of North America were formed during this glacial period.

In some ages there grew enormous ferns and other plants and great trees, which fell, rotted, and hardened into the coal we burn today. Gigantic reptiles and animals roamed the earth. Even today we sometimes find the marks of plants and animals of this time embedded in the rocks — *fossils*, we call them. A few skeletons of these monsters have been discovered and may be seen in museums. The artist has included in the drawings in the time-and-unit chart at the top of page 3 a sketch of a fossil plant and also representations of a prehistoric bird and animals and of human

beings as they probably looked and acted at some time during pre-historic ages.

Is it of any value to know the theories of scientists about the origin of the world and the life that has existed upon it? Is there any evidence that changes are still taking place on the surface of the earth? Does your neighborhood contain any traces of the visit of glaciers?

7. The Map of the World. — What can you tell by looking at a map? If you never learned to interpret a map, or have forgotten how to do it, you should begin or renew your acquaintance with it right away. You ought to know what is shown on the map between pages 14 and 15 as well as you know your own name.

The best way to show the entire surface of the earth is to use a *globe*, but this is not always convenient. Another way is to represent it as two *hemispheres*, usually the western and the eastern, the New World and the Old World. The map referred to above is an example of the Mercator projection. This shows the earth's surface as if it were laid out flat and stretches out much too widely the extreme northern and southern regions. Now that we have become so interested in air travel and have realized that a large part of the land of the world seems to be centered around the North Pole, maps such as the one appearing on page 816 have received much attention. Such maps as these also need to be used with caution, because, if one were looking at the world from above the North Pole, he would not be able to see beyond the equator, and the regions farthest away from him might be as greatly distorted as are the North and far South on the Mercator map.

Be sure you understand these terms: *equator, degrees, poles, parallels, meridians, latitude, longitude, tropics, circles, zones*. Can you see these on the actual surface of the earth? If not, of what use are they?

On a printed outline map or one that you draw yourself locate the continents; the oceans; about 12 important countries; 12 seas, bays, and gulfs; 12 rivers; 5 mountain ranges.

Do you recognize the points of the compass and the location of important places well enough so that you could stand where you are and point in the proper direction as someone calls out a geographical name?

If you have any difficulty about understanding an outline map, take one and compare it closely with a regular map covering approximately the same area until you are sure just what are land and water areas, rivers, and other features of the map. It may help you at first to draw, lightly, a blue line around the coast of continents or countries so as to distinguish the water surface from the land.

8. How Geography Affects Human Progress. — Geography and history have been called "the stage and the book of God's household." "Whoever studies either without the other under-

stands neither." Geography was responsible for the way men lived and the things they did in more cases than perhaps we realize.

Ocean currents, winds, nearness to large bodies of water, rivers and mountains, deserts, altitude above sea level, all have their



HOW GEOGRAPHY AFFECTS HUMAN
ACTIVITIES

Can you guess where this picture might have been taken? In what kind of natural environment and climate could such a scene be found, and in what situations would it be impossible?

Mountains, on the other hand, most often contain the metals and minerals which mean so much to a nation's industrial life.

Refer again to the map between pages 14 and 15 to illustrate the facts stated in this section. Mention ten cities whose location was determined by geographical influences. What natural reasons are there for the establishment of the community in which you live? Do you think geography affects history now as much as it did in former days?

9. The People and Where They Live. — Without people there would be no history. There are about 2,000,000,000 people on the earth today. Nobody ever took a census of all of them, but we know that their distribution over the earth's surface is far from even. China, Japan, and India, for instance, have very many

effect upon the products of a particular district and people's activities there. England, for instance, has a much warmer climate on the average than the corresponding latitude on the eastern coast of North America, and much of the Pacific coast of North America is relatively warmer than the corresponding points on the Atlantic coast. Southern Europe is warmed by the winds that blow north over the Sahara Desert and many of its products are the semitropical kind, which could not be grown in corresponding latitudes in North America.

River valleys usually have more fertile soil than mountainous regions. The moun-

tains, on the other hand, most often contain the metals and minerals which mean so much to a nation's industrial life.



ARCTIC

OCEAN

GREENLAND

ICELAND

NORTH

AMERICA

CANADA

UNITED STATES

MEXICO

ATLANTIC

PACIFIC

OCEAN

AFRICA

SOUTH AMERICA

BRAZIL

CHILE
ARGENTINA

PHYSICAL MAP
OF THE
WORLD

ANTARCTIC



people in proportion to their area, while the great deserts, jungles, and icy wastes are almost uninhabited.

Though no two people are exactly alike, there are great groups whose physical characteristics are similar. We call them *races*. Students do not all agree as to the origin of these races or the best way to classify them. The easiest method is by color.

The *white* or *Caucasian* race has been the most active in human development. Its original home was in northern Africa, western Asia, and Europe. Later it spread to the New World.

The white race itself is subdivided into many smaller groups. One such distinction is on the basis of groups related in language. The *Hamit'ic* peoples include the ancient inhabitants of northern Africa — Libyans and Egyptians. The *Sēmīt'ic* peoples lived in western Asia and embraced the Bābŷlō'nians, Assŷr'ians, Phoenicians (fē-nish'ians), Hebrews, and Arabs. The *Indo-European*, sometimes called *Ar'yan*, peoples include the Hindus, Greeks, Romans, Germans, English, Slavs, and other related peoples.

Some writers make a still further subdivision of these Indo-European peoples. They call *Mediterranean* those peoples who originally lived in lands touching the Mediterranean Sea; *Alpine*, those who occupied the mountain districts of central Europe; and *Nordic*, those who came from northern and northwestern Europe. Some Nordic people like to boast about their merits as compared with other people.

The second great race is the *yellow* or *Mongolian*. Perhaps there are as many of this race as of the white. The Chinese and Japanese are its best-known representatives. Many students believe that the brown, or Malay, and the red, or Indian, people should be considered branches of the Mongolian race.

The *black* or *Negro* race came from central Africa. Many of its representatives now live in North America, but in the past only a few went there of their own accord. It is sometimes difficult to distinguish those members of this race who have some white ancestors from branches of the Aryan peoples.

The *brown* or *Malay* people are found almost wholly in the Malay Peninsula and the neighboring islands of the Pacific Ocean. Their numbers are much smaller than those of any of the other races we have mentioned.

If you had not already learned the home of the *red* or *Indian* race, you would surely not be able to guess that its members were the first Americans. They also have never been very numerous.

Sometimes the three great races are called the Cau'casoid, the Mongoloid, and the Negroid.

How many of these different types of races or subdivisions of races are represented in your community? From what you know about your ancestors, where do they and you belong in the races or divisions mentioned above? Do you know of any countries or districts where there is a great diversity of races? From the *World Almanac* or some other recent reference book get statistics as to the number of people in the different races.

C. MAN BEFORE HISTORY

"A man is a whole encyclopedia of facts. The creation of a thousand forests is in one acorn, and Egypt, Greece, Rome, Gaul, Britain, America, lie folded already in the first man!" — EMERSON

10. Stages in Man's Development. — Great changes have taken place in the *culture*, or ways of thinking and living, of the human race. The earliest man lived in what we call *savagery*. He was dependent entirely upon what Nature furnished in the way of food, clothing, and shelter. He was probably more animal than human, if we may put it that way.

A step ahead, yet one that to us seems small, raised man from *savagery* to *barbarism*. In this stage he was still dependent to a considerable extent upon the gifts of Nature and the animal life with which he associated, but he had gained some control over animal life by maintaining flocks and herds. He had not learned, however, to express himself in writing or to make over natural conditions so that they would suit him better.

Next, man became civilized — not all men, but considerable numbers of them. *Civilization* is a condition in which man exercises a purposeful control over Nature. Civilized man knows how to use his brain and muscles so as to make Nature aid him in improving his own life.

Why do you consider yourself civilized?

We might also trace human progress by observing the significant ways by which man has made a living. Usually the earliest stage

from this point of view is called the *hunting and fishing* age. Man depended wholly upon Nature and lived upon things which grew wild in the fields and upon fish and game which he killed.

A second stage was the *pastoral* age. By this time man had domesticated some of the wild animals and made them go with him from place to place. He might still be a traveler or "nomad," however, and stay in one spot only as long as there was good feeding for his flocks or herds.

A third progressive step was to the *agricultural* age. Then man planted crops instead of waiting for them to grow accidentally. This meant that he had to stay with them from seedtime to harvest and caused the beginning of settled, permanent homes.

The *handicraft*, or *manufacturing*, age came next. If you have studied Latin, you know that manufacturing once meant "making things by hand." The first manufacture of hatchets, clothing, baskets, or whatever it might be, was crude enough; but it extended to the making of tools and then the making of things with these tools.

The manufacturing age developed into the fifth, and thus far the last, our *industrial* age. Now we depend greatly upon machinery, and carry on much business on a very large scale. Few people do any great variety of things well, but depend upon exchanging their products or services with others in order to get most of the things that they want.

We cannot separate the three general stages of culture and the five occupational ages by any clear-cut line. Even yet we could find some people living in savagery, if we went to the right place. All the earliest occupations were continued after the later ones began. Indeed, shouldn't we miss fishermen, trappers, or herdsmen today! But each new occupational stage added to the comfort and well-being of the race.

How many stages of industrial progress are represented in your community? Do you know of any people or nations who have not yet reached the manufacturing age? From your own experience would you say that there was probably any fun in living in the hunting and fishing or the pastoral age? What would have been the result if all people stopped farming when the manufacturing age began?

11. The Beginnings of the Human Race. —

Far back beyond our seeing,
Before history ever was told,
Mankind came into being
In a world that already was old.

The first men very likely lived more poorly than anybody on the face of the earth today. Most primitive men were probably shorter than the average man today, were stoop-shouldered, and shuffled along as they moved from place to place. They were utter savages. Protection for their bodies, other than their own shaggy hair, would be the skin of some slain animal. Shelter might be found in a cave; for, however uncomfortable and filthy it might be, it offered some protection from prowling animals and from storms or unpleasant weather outside. Indeed, we often speak of all primitive men as "cave men."

Primitive men did not have even the horns and hoofs that many animals possessed as means of protection from enemies; but at their lowest, they had that mysterious thing we call a mind, which enabled them, however slowly, to improve themselves and the conditions in which they lived. Some animals seem rather intelligent; but no horse, dog, or elephant ever did anything to improve the living conditions of horses, dogs, or elephants in general.

What advantages or disadvantages are there in the way you are constructed physically in comparison with the make-up of animals you know? How would these advantages have been of help to primitive men? How much progress would you judge the human beings shown in the headpiece of this unit had made in comparison with the animals?

But how can we pretend to know anything about primitive men? Because in various parts of the world skulls and other bones which seem to be the remains of human bodies have been found, and along with them tools and weapons that men probably used.¹ From these bones and the bones of animals that have been preserved it is possible to form a pretty good idea of what these men and animals must have looked like when they were alive.

The way early men learned what was good and what was not must have been sometimes embarrassing. Some people today

¹ We often refer to certain primitive people by the name of places where such relics were found, as Neanderthal (nā ān'der tāl) in Germany, and Cro-Magnon (krō mānyōn') in France.

do not know enough to keep away from poison ivy, but how could anybody tell that it is poisonous, and that catnip and wintergreen are not, until they had all been tried? There must have been a great deal of learning on the part of primitive men by the rather inconvenient process that we commonly call trial and error.

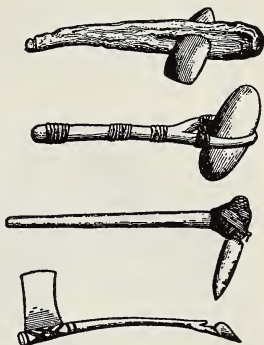
Are there any things that you have to learn today through "trial and error"?

12. Men of the Old Stone Age. —

Since the earliest remains of tools or weapons with which we are familiar today are made of crudely fashioned stone, we speak of a very early period in which men made such tools as the *Old Stone Age*. Probably men used sticks as soon as they did stones; but since wood does not last as stone does, we do not know so much about early men's use of wood. Chipped stones found in a number of places have been called fist-hatchets because it is supposed that they were held in the fist when used. Sometimes this Old Stone Age is referred to by the Greek word *Paleolith'ic*, or is spoken of as the *Rough Stone Age*.

Old Stone men learned how to make knives, daggers, spearheads, arrowheads, and chisels. From the bones or tusks of animals they also made needles, so that before the Old Stone Age was over men probably knew how to make garments by sewing skins together. Here, you see, was in a way the beginning of manufacturing, a little out of turn if we compare it with the development of occupations mentioned in Section 10. But as long as men depended on rough stone tools, they lived almost wholly by hunting and fishing.

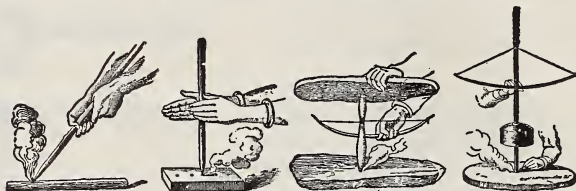
One achievement of Old Stone Age man was learning how to use fire. And what a discovery that was! Now he could keep himself more comfortable in bad weather. With fire he could



AXES MADE BY PRIMITIVE MEN

Notice how handles have been attached to the stones to make the three upper axes. The ax at the bottom is made of bronze.

frighten off animals. He could cook his food instead of eating it raw. The countless ways in which later men used fire, such as in the making of pottery and in the working of metals, show how important it is. Without fire our civilization could not exist. No one can tell when and how men first learned to use it. Some think that lightning or the eruption of a volcano may have been its first origin ; but men might have been afraid of fire from such



WAYS OF MAKING FIRE

The pictures tell their own story. Could you make fire in any of these ways today ?

a source. When you think of its brightness and its usefulness, can you wonder that fire was long considered sacred and that among some people a few were set apart with nothing else to do but to watch a fire and never let it die out ?

Do you like to see a fire ? Do you enjoy fire today for the same reasons that men did in primitive times ?

These Rough Stone men had much in common with us. The wolf that may have been the ancestor of your pet dog was quite likely one of the first animals to be tamed, for these early men liked the companionship of animals and some animals may have been glad to become friends of men. Besides, some cave men could draw at least as well as most of us. On the walls of caves in southern France and Spain are some remarkable pictures of bulls, reindeer, and other animals that were known in Old Stone times.

In caves and elsewhere we have found several layers of refuse and rubbish that have collected through no one knows how many years. How might such layers of rubbish be of any value to a historian ? By studying these layers would it be possible to trace stages of progress or retreat in the development of human life ?

Why do modern artists draw, paint, or carve statues out of marble ? Do you suppose prehistoric artists had any different motives for what they did ?

13. Men in the New Stone Age. — How long the Old Stone Age lasted nobody can tell. Sometime, not so many years ago in comparison, a new era had begun which was characterized by better tools and other evidences of considerable progress in ways of living. This is variously called the *New Stone Age*, the *Nēolith'ic Age*, or the *Polished Stone Age*. Remains of men who lived at this time are more widely distributed in Europe than of those of earlier days. By the time this period had been reached, men had discovered that they could grind their knives and hatchets so as to get a sharp edge upon them, and could polish them off so as to make them look better and at the same time be much more useful.



PRIMITIVE ART AND LIFE

In a cave at Altamira, in Spain, was found this decidedly lifelike sketch of a wild boar, which must have lived at the same time as the artist. Could you do as well?

New Stone men became herdsmen and shepherds instead of merely hunters. Not only dogs but cows, sheep, goats, and donkeys had become domesticated. Men had advanced at least into the pastoral age. It was far easier to milk a cow or a goat or to kill a sheep or an ox out of your own herd than to chase it over the fields. An animal's flesh might be used for food, and its hides or fur made into clothing or tents. In time men learned to use animals for carrying burdens, but there is no sign that early Europeans did this very much.

Many New Stone people moved on into the agricultural age. The same sort of benefit would come from domesticating plants as from domesticating animals. Thoughtful people helped Nature by putting seeds in places where they would grow easily and where their product could be conveniently gathered. Some think that women were the first to do this. We do know that among some early people it was women's work to harvest grain. Women and children could attend to work of this kind while men were out hunting, fighting, or watching sheep.

With farming under way, however crude it might be, there was more of a settled life, and villages composed of huts or wigwams came into existence. Prisoners taken in war might be made slaves to look after crops or herds, instead of simply being killed and buried or eaten. With better weapons fighting was easier for the New Stone men, though at the same time people who had settled down in towns would have less reason for raid and plunder than those who were still living in wilder fashion.

When a Swiss lake one year became exceptionally low, interesting remains of a "New Stone" village came to light. At the bottom of the lake among the piles which had supported a village were found many tools, furniture, pieces of woven goods, grain, and bones of animals. These "lake dwellers" lived rather comfortably out from shore because it was safer than on land. Their village was connected with the shore by a bridge or boardwalk. On the land were the gardens of the lake dwellers, and there also their cattle and sheep were pastured.

Along the shores of Denmark have been found mounds of shells and bones, known as "kitchen middens." When these were opened, pottery, tools, and many other traces of prehistoric life were brought to light.

Will it be possible 5000 years from now to find remains of the civilized world of today in anything like the form in which these European relics of the New Stone Age have been discovered? Will later people find it more easy, or less, to interpret our life in terms of their own day than we find it in the case of Stone Age people? Is the domestication of plants and animals still going on?

14. Man and Metals. — As nearly as we can judge, few or none of the early Europeans got beyond the Stone Age. But stone weapons would not serve all occasions well. They could not easily be given varied shapes or made very sharp. To find the first traces of the next stage in advancement we must turn to the Near East — to Egypt and to western Asia. There it was that the use of *metals* first became common. Copper was probably the first metal which man turned to his own use. It is rather widely distributed over the earth's surface. Tin, though found less extensively, is also believed to have been used early in human history.

Both copper and tin are somewhat soft, however. When they

are put together, the alloy, which we call bronze, is more durable than either alone. The Bronze Age therefore represents a distinct advance in human progress. Gold and silver were known very early, but they were never found in large quantities and are not hard enough to be used under a great variety of conditions.



PICTURE WRITING

Ewing Galloway

These Eskimos, who live at Point Barrow, Alaska, tell stories in pictures just as men did centuries ago before they learned how to write. Can you guess something about the meaning of these pictures?

An immense improvement came when men learned to use iron. Iron is found in almost every part of the world. It can be made into all sorts of shapes and serve a wonderful variety of purposes. We are not sure that people knew much about its use before 1500 B.C. Those who became acquainted with it first had an immense advantage over those who did not know of it. By the time men could use bronze and iron, they were clearly in the handicraft or manufacturing age.

Has any other material taken the place of iron in our day? What are some of the modern uses of bronze? If people didn't have coal in these early stages of development, what could they use for fuel?

15. Learning to Express Ideas. — Can you imagine what it would be like not to be able either to talk or to write? Perhaps

early man used the same kind of noises to express his feelings or wishes as animals do now. Gestures and motions could convey meanings, too. Do they still? In time a certain sound came to signify a certain idea. The order of sounds or words also might mean something. But it doubtless was a long time before there was anything like formal grammar or spelling.

Seirite- Sinaitic	Canaanite- Phoenician- Aramaic	Greek	Latin
		A	A
		B	B
		ΓC	CG
		ΔD	D
		ΕE	E
		ϜY	FVUWY
		I	Z
		H	H
		I	IJ
		K	K
		ΛL	L
		Μ	M
		N	N
		ΞΞ	X
		Ο	O
		ΠΓ	P
		Ϟ	Q
		ΡΡ	R
		ΣΣ	S
		Τ	T

HOW OUR ALPHABET DEVELOPED

We use this illustration by courtesy of the American Council on Education, under whose direction was issued the pamphlet, *The Story of Writing*. Since the Latin letters are like our own, you can readily trace the sources from which the letters we use came. The Seirites lived in the peninsula in which Mt. Sinai is located at the northern end of the Red Sea. As late as our own time, characters directly taken from these have been found in use in Abyssinia. For more on the Phoenician alphabet, see pages 62, 63.

Written language naturally came after spoken language. People still talk far more than they write. At first, no doubt, pictures of animals, people, or natural objects were used to suggest ideas. As in a rebus today, the same sign might be used for the same sound even when the meaning was different, as the figure of a bee might represent an insect or the verb *be*. Such pictures later were simplified and symbols or letters took the place of the original drawings. These symbols were used to represent particular sounds, at first syllables and then single sounds. Thus *phonetic* writing came about — a marvelous gain!¹

There is a sort of family relationship among many of the languages commonly spoken today. In Greek, Latin, German, English, and French, for instance, there are a number of words which, though pronounced some-

¹ The Chinese language had a distinct sign for each word, so that an educated Chinese had to know 25,000 signs. Today the Chinese language has been much improved, but you can see the difficulty in that kind of writing. What if we had to learn 25,000 or more signs in order to write English, instead of the 26 symbols which tell the whole story!

what differently, are spelled nearly enough alike to show that they have a common derivation.

GREEK	LATIN	GERMAN	ENGLISH	FRENCH
πατήρ (pater)	pater	Vater	father	père
μητήρ (meter)	mater	Mutter	mother	mère

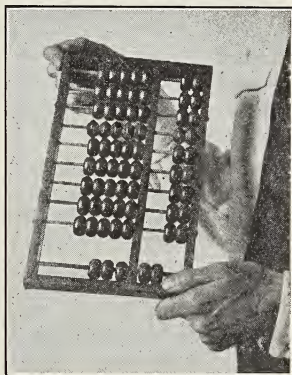
If you know any other language than English, pick out ten similar words in the two languages. Do you know whether any people today use any form of picture writing? Are there many different sounds which the human voice can utter?

Along with the expression of ideas by speech, men had to develop a way of counting and measuring. It is easy to see how counting on the fingers and toes might lead to our decimal system. In the same way, distances were compared with the average length of some part of the body, as the foot. One is surprised to find how many of our common terms and practices are still so closely allied to ways that primitive men used.

16. Primitive Man's Religion.

— Someone has said that man is incurably religious. There is something born in man which never gets out of him unless he deliberately kills it — an emotion, a feeling, a motive, which we call religion. It is man's thought in regard to a Power greater and stronger than himself.

Primitive man had no conceit as to his own importance. Such manifestations of Nature as the wind, thunder, lightning, and earthquakes, he could not control and therefore dreaded. So the earliest religion was usually based



Ewing Galloway

A CHINESE ADDING MACHINE

Moving these counters from one position to another was the means by which the Chinese gentleman who holds this affair learned to count.

on fear. Man might offer sacrifices or torture himself in order to appease the spirits or powers which were mightier than he.

On the other hand the heavenly bodies, such as the sun, which gave warmth and light, the moon, beautiful to look at, and springs or trees, which helped to make man comfortable, primitive man revered in a crude way. Such a religion we call *nature worship*. When men came to believe in gods, they had many of them — in one word their religion was *polytheistic* — and their gods seemed not much different from human beings with supernatural power.

Primitive men were also likely to respect those who were old or who had had long experience. This fact might lead to the worship of one's ancestors or the departed rulers of a tribe. Enormous stones were sometimes set up, either as memorials for such great ones or to mark their tombs.

Primitive religion frequently had little connection with morals, though sometimes rules that were intended to promote cleanliness or health were established as religious requirements. Some facts indicate that primitive men believed in a future life. Claiming to be able to explain mysteries or to communicate with the gods or spirits, a class of priests or medicine men grew up, who often gained great influence.

Do you know any stories of men who did or planned to do what we would consider a wrong act in order to fulfill what they thought was a religious obligation? Did you ever see anything to indicate that people take more interest in religion when they aren't prosperous or happy?

17. Progress in Human Relationships. — We have no way of knowing whether people have always lived in families, but we are sure that the family is the first permanent unit of human relationship. Among some primitive people the family life centered around the mother rather than the father. Such a group is a *matriarchal* family. When the father is the head, there is a *patriarchal* family.

In most cases the patriarchal family prevailed. The father's word was law. He also led in whatever passed for religious exercise in the family life. The children, and even the wives of grown-up sons, were entirely under his control. The death of the father, of course, broke up the family and then the sons each became the heads of their own families.

As families increased in numbers, they might form a *clan*, or *gens*. Clans, in turn, often united to form *tribes*. Clans or tribes sometimes added to their membership by adopting individuals, or by admitting to their number some whom they captured in war. Several tribes might unite or expand into a larger body, called a *nation*, because made up largely of people "related by birth," as the word itself meant at first. Naturally these stages of expansion or change did not occur everywhere in exactly the same way.

Governments came into being for the simplest and plainest of reasons — because people had to have them. As long as the chief use of governments is to protect the community or its weaker members, the responsibility is likely to center in one person, and that one will demand unquestioning obedience from those whom he undertakes to protect. So almost all primitive communities had the kind of government that we call *absolute monarchy* — one man possessed all power. Sometimes a chief or king was glad to have the advice of the older and more experienced men; at other times they were strong enough to force their advice upon him. In some primitive tribes such a council came to have a regular place in directing affairs. But primitive government was always by force, not by choice.

What reading have you done that told about clans or tribes? Our Declaration of Independence says that "governments derive their just powers from the consent of the governed." Is that true in any sense when an absolute monarchy prevails? What kinds of service does your government perform for you today which were not done by rulers or leaders in the Neolithic Age? Do you suppose primitive people thought much about those ideas that we refer to today as *liberty*, *freedom*, and *democracy*?

All these facts go to show that primitive man contributed much to civilized man. He moved upward, steadily, if slowly. He learned how to live more comfortably. He discovered new ways of doing things, and developed his native talents. He organized social groups to serve better the interests of their members.

Civilized man built on what primitive man passed on to him. His foundation of information and experience steadily increased; and progress, when once well under way, could proceed much

faster. Think how much has been achieved in the last hundred years, for instance, as compared with the several thousand years of previous civilization. We today are truly the "heirs of all the ages."

"Yet I doubt not through the ages one increasing purpose runs,
And the thoughts of men are widened with the process of the suns."

Are all changes equally beneficial to all people? May the same event be helpful to some and harmful to others? Show how airplanes, for example, may have both helpful and harmful effects. Does an advance in civilization make everybody happier?

IDEAS TO STAY WITH US

History is one of the most valuable of the social studies and offers many benefits to those who take an interest in it.

Our historical knowledge is derived from such original sources as material relics, traditions, and various kinds of written records, and from secondary sources written by those who have become acquainted with the results of the study of the original sources.

Time is an exceedingly important element in history. It has been reckoned by different people in various ways.

History is a *continuous* story, never finished.

Though we know very little about the beginnings of our physical world, geography has always played a great part in human history.

The people of the world may be classified into five great divisions on the basis of color, and the white race into three on the basis of language.

Man's progress may be traced through such general conditions as savagery, barbarism, and civilization; in accordance with outstanding occupations or methods of work; and by noting the materials commonly used for tools and weapons. The rate of progress varied much with different peoples, and periods of change in occupations overlapped one another.

Early men lived a crude and unpleasant life, but slowly and steadily gained control over the gifts and forces of Nature.

Men found ways to express their thoughts and ideas to one another and their feelings toward the powers they did not understand.

Men learned to live together in family, clan, tribe, and nation, and set up for themselves such government as seemed to suit their time.

Primitive men passed on much to that period of human progress which we speak of as civilization.

NAMES AND TERMS WE SHOULD UNDERSTAND

- | | | |
|---|-------------------------------|---|
| 1. History | 19. Projections | 38. Savagery |
| 2. Social studies or
social sciences | 20. Globular | 39. Barbarism |
| 3. Material remains;
relics | 21. Mercator | 40. Civilization |
| 4. Original sources | 22. Polar | 41. Trial and error |
| 5. Secondary sources | 23. Fossils | 42. Paleolithic (Old
Stone; Rough
Stone) |
| 6. Traditions | 24. Glaciers | 43. Neolithic (New
Stone; Polished
Stone) |
| 7. Written records | 25. Caucasian | 44. Picture writing |
| 8. Fact; theory | 26. Mongolian | 45. Phonetic writing |
| 9. Chronology | 27. Negro | 46. Nature worship |
| 10. B.C. | 28. Malay | 47. Polytheism |
| 11. A.D. | 29. Indian | 48. Ancestor worship |
| 12. Olympiad | 30. Hamitic | 49. Family |
| 13. Decade | 31. Semitic | 50. Clan; gens |
| 14. Millennium | 32. Aryan | 51. Tribe |
| 15. Prehistoric | 33. Indo-European | 52. Nation |
| 16. Ancient | 34. Mediterranean
(racial) | |
| 17. Medieval | 35. Alpine (racial) | |
| 18. Modern | 36. Nordic | |
| | 37. Culture | |

The lists of "Ideas to Stay with Us" and "Names and Terms We Should Understand" which you will find near the end of each unit of study will be useful to you in making sure you have mastered the unit. As you read them over, if you come to any whose meaning is not clear and definite, review whatever part of the text is necessary. If there is time, it might be interesting to arrange a series of floor talks on either the "Pointers" near the beginning of the unit, or the "Ideas." Sometimes you may wish to give such floor talks during your advance study.

INTERESTING SUBJECTS YOU MAY LIKE TO KNOW ABOUT

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|---|
| Taming the Animals | The Beginnings of Writing and
Counting |
| The Beginnings of Farming | Prehistoric Art |
| Steps in the Development of Tools | The Religion of Primitive People |
| Fire among Primitive People | |

INTERESTING PROJECTS YOU MAY LIKE TO UNDERTAKE

1. (For all) Begin to make entries in a table like that on the next page and add others as later topics are taken up. When the table is completed, you will be able to trace the development of different threads of progress from prehistoric to modern times. Be sure you draw this table large enough to enable you to write in the significant facts.

2. Have Boy Scouts show how to make a fire without the use of matches or modern lighters.

AGE OR PEOPLE	GOVERNMENT	SOCIETY	INDUSTRY AND TRADE	RELIGION	EDUCATION	LITERATURE	SCIENCE AND INVENTION	ART AND ARCHITECTURE
Primitive								
Oriental								
Greek								
Roman								
Germanic								
Medieval								
Renaissance and Reformation								
17th and 18th centuries								
19th and 20th centuries								

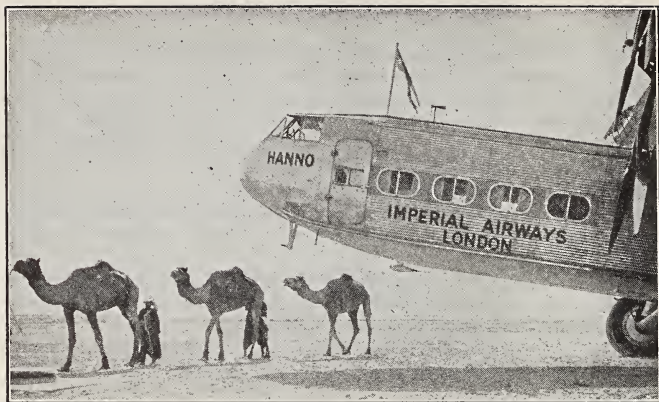
GENERAL TRENDS IN WORLD PROGRESS

3. Draw a cartoon illustrating the early use of fire by man.
4. Draw cartoons comparing phases of primitive life with modern life.
5. Work up imaginary dialogues on such subjects as the following:
Early men talk over some notable experience or new discovery
A mother of the Stone Age gives a "safety talk" to her children
Two chiefs discuss the union of their tribes
6. Work out messages to be sent by picture writing.
7. Arrange a debate on the subject: Resolved, that prehistoric man deserves as much credit for his discoveries and accomplishments as man of today.
8. Begin to prepare for a pageant of history to be given at the end of the year, in which the different races and peoples from primitive man onward show their contributions to our present civilization.

PLACES FOR FURTHER READING

Breasted, *Ancient Times*, I
 Clodd, *The Story of Primitive Man*
 Coffman, *The Child's Story of the Human Race* (hereafter mentioned as *Human Race*), I-VI
 Kummer, *The First Days of Knowledge*
 Marshall, *Readings in the Story of Human Progress*, 8-51
 Marshall, *Story of Human Progress*, I, II, and 75-91
 Osborn, *Men of the Old Stone Age*
 Quennell, *Everyday Life in the Old Stone Age*
 Quennell, *Everyday Life in the New Stone, Bronze, and Early Iron Ages*
 Robinson and Breasted, *Outlines of European History*, Volume I, Chapter I
 Seers, *The Earth and Its Life*
 Tufts, *The Real Business of Living*, II, III
 Wells, *Outline of History*, I, II, VII-XIII
 Burr, *Around the Fire*
 Hall, *Days before History*
 Rolt-Wheeler, *The Finder of Fire*
 True, *The Iron Star*
 Waterloo, *The Story of Ab*

In the list of books mentioned under "Places for Further Reading" the first group of books includes the distinctly historical kind whose chief purpose is to give information or to explain the facts of history. Often this list is in turn subdivided, with books which are distinctly textbooks separated from those not written particularly for that purpose. The last group includes historical novels and poems which are often interesting in themselves and also give the reader a good idea of how people lived and acted in past times. We hope your school library or public library will be able to provide enough of these supplementary books so that every one in the class may do some reading outside of his regular text.



SHIPS OF THE DESERT AND A SHIP OF THE AIR

Wide World Photos

Here you have a striking illustration of the difference between ancient and modern transportation. The airliner has stopped to take on more gasoline when it is passed by the camel train. Which is likely to reach its destination first?

II. THE BEGINNINGS OF OUR CIVILIZATION

Men look to the East for the dawning things, for the light of a rising sun.

— MALLOCH

Ex oriente lux; ex occidente lex.

(From the East, light; from the West, law.)

— LATIN PROVERB

Men in different parts of the world reached civilization without apparently having much to do with one another. The valleys of the great rivers of China and India have been occupied for unnumbered centuries by people who were civilized long before people in northern Europe were. Even in the New World, we have lately discovered that at least in Yucatan and parts of Mexico a highly advanced stage of progress was gained by the Mayas, of whom we know only enough to make us want to know more.

None of these people, however, directly contributed much to that civilization from which our own is derived. Our social life and industry and government find their way back to that region which today we call the Near East, reaching from Egypt to the valley of the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers. There — for us, at least — civilization began.

Pointers for Our Study:

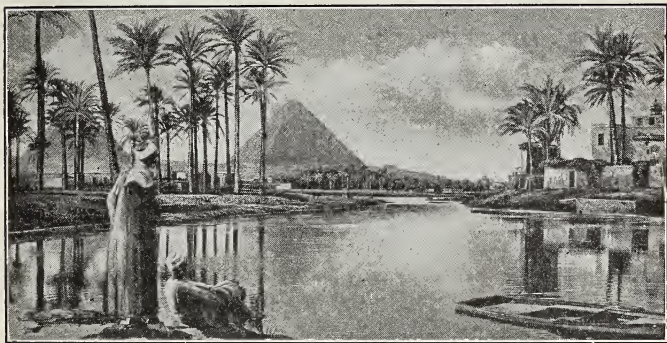
How was the Near East favorable to the building of early civilizations?

What great nations of antiquity flourished and declined in that region?

What were some outstanding features of the life of those nations?

What people outside of these "great powers" gave valuable legacies to us?

In how many ways and for what notable gifts are we indebted to the peoples of the Ancient Orient?



THE NILE AT FLOOD TIME

One can go out to look upon the Great Pyramid by auto, electric railroad, or some of the same means that would have been used forty centuries ago and more; the Nile behaves just as it did then and some of the people dress the same way.

18. The Geography of the Near East. — By railroad, ferryboat, and auto we can travel from Cairo (kī'ro) on the Nile through Jerū'salem and Damās'cus to Bagdad on the Tī'gris. In three days we can cross almost the entire span of the region where that part of ancient oriental history was made which most directly concerns us — or we can do it in still less time by airplane. But this is in our day; 2500, 3000, or even more years ago, when the great empires of the Ancient Orient were flourishing, people could not make the trip that way. Then they traveled with camels or donkeys, or on foot; and they timed a long trip by months rather than by days.

In studying this section, make use of maps on pages 37 and 48, following page 50, or showing the Near East today.

Our journey takes us through the region sometimes called the "Fertile Crescent." Starting at the Nile Valley, it goes north through Pāl'estīne and Sŷr'ia and then bends southeast. In it is a large part of the land good for cultivation in the Near East. Its eastern horn is the valley of the twin rivers, the Tī'gris and the Euphrates (ū-frā'tēz). Now they join before they empty into the Persian Gulf. Centuries ago they did not, and the northern end of the Gulf was several miles farther north than it is now. Mesopotā'mia was the former name of the region "between the rivers," and in Greek it meant just that. Now it is included in the kingdom of Iraq (ē'rāk). The southern part of this great valley was fertile and was in ancient times made still more productive by irrigation. Farther north the valley is not so good for farming but is habitable for a hardy people.

Now let us call for the magic carpet to take us back. We could go straight southwest across Arabia to Egypt, but who wants to look down on 800 miles of desert? As we rise on the carpet and look toward the east, we see the elevated region known as the Plateau of Iran (ē-rān'), or Persia. As we cross from the Euphrates Valley into Syria, we find some desert but also some fine farming land. Off to the north and northwest is the hilly region of Asia Minor, which now forms part of the republic of Turkey.

Then we turn south and look down upon the Lēb'anon Mountains which hem in a very narrow strip of seacoast, known in ancient days as Phoenicia (fē-nīsh'ia). Going south through Palestine, we look first upon beautiful farming country, then upon some that is good for pasture, and upon some so barren and rocky that it is of little value for anything.

If we have to be shown that geography has a vital effect upon people and their history, Egypt will do it. The old Greek historian, Herōd'otus, called Egypt "the gift of the Nile." This mighty stream, starting in the mountains and lakes of Abŷssīn'ia and east central Africa, flows north through a narrow valley flanked by deserts and rocky hills, and empties into the Mediterrā'nean in that series of mouths which we call the Delta.¹ Its

¹ The name Delta was applied to this region because it was shaped like the Greek letter Δ, whose name is "delta." Now any similar mouth of a river we call a delta.

length, about 4000 miles, surpasses that of any other continuous stream in the world.

In most places a flood is a calamity ; in Egypt it is a necessity. In the summer the Nile brings down the waters from far in the south and pours out over its narrow valley — eight to twenty miles wide south of the Delta. In the fall it retires to its banks, leaving behind a coating of mud which furnishes the best possible



AN EGYPTIAN IRRIGATION WHEEL

© Publishers' Photo Service

The water buffalo, with his eyes covered, walks round and round turning the wheel, which makes another wheel revolve, bringing vessels of water from below to pour out into a ditch, which may carry it to the adjoining field.

kind of soil for crops. Grain, date palms, fine cotton, and other products are grown extensively with the help of an irrigation system which is several thousand years old and in some places looks it ! If it were not for this flooding of the Nile, Egypt would be a barren waste, in spite of its bright blue skies and warm, but pleasant, climate.

Compare the area of the region from the Nile Valley to the eastern side of the Tigris-Euphrates Valley with a similar area in the United States. If you have a blackboard map of either region, draw the outline of one region upon the other. What makes river valleys important ? Do you know any other river valleys that have been vitally important to the

life of a great nation? Are they more, or less, significant to nations today than they were 3000 or more years ago?

Be sure you understand the meaning of: *Orient, Occident, Far East, Near East.*

Before starting to trace the history of the ancient Near East, turn back to the time- and unit-chart at the top of pages 3 to 9, and observe how large a part of the whole range of recorded history is spanned by this unit. The pictures in the chart show at first early scenes from the two great river valleys. The palm trees along the Nile rise above a group of early mud huts. In the other great river valley is shown one of the tower temples, which inhabitants of that valley erected rather early. After a time in Egyptian history the pyramids rise. Ways of recording thought are shown by Egyptian hieroglyphics and Mesopotamian cuneiform writing. The scarab, or beetle, and a massive temple suggest religious ideas of Egypt, and above them Hammurā'bī, an ancient king of Babylonia, is receiving his code of laws from the Sun God.

Then (page 6) other ancient peoples become famous, and trade takes place between the two great centers of civilization. Caravans pass back and forth through the Fertile Crescent. Cretans go far and wide on the sea, and the Phoenicians take up their task of spreading civilization by trade. Phoenicians carry with them the beginnings of our modern alphabet. The Babylonians study the stars and develop the signs of the zodiac. Through the Hebrews the Ten Commandments are given to the human race. Meantime men have learned to work metals, and all kinds of tools come into use. By this time the peoples of Greece and Rome were making their humble beginnings, while Assyrian emperors were still oppressing their neighbors. Finally, a Persian king rules over all the Near East.

19. Egypt, the First Great Power. — Probably the first strong government that ruled over many people came into existence in the valley of the Nile. In the earliest days of which we have any notion there were separate independent tribes in that region. About 3400 B.C., however, a leader named Mē'nēs united these tribes into a kingdom under his own rule. The capital city of Egypt was at first Mēmphis and later Thēbes, farther up the valley.

Tribes in the Nile Valley
City-states are formed

Menes unites Upper
and Lower Egypt
3400 B.C.

Irrigation

Trade between Crete and
other lands

Sumerians in the Tigris Valley
Wheels

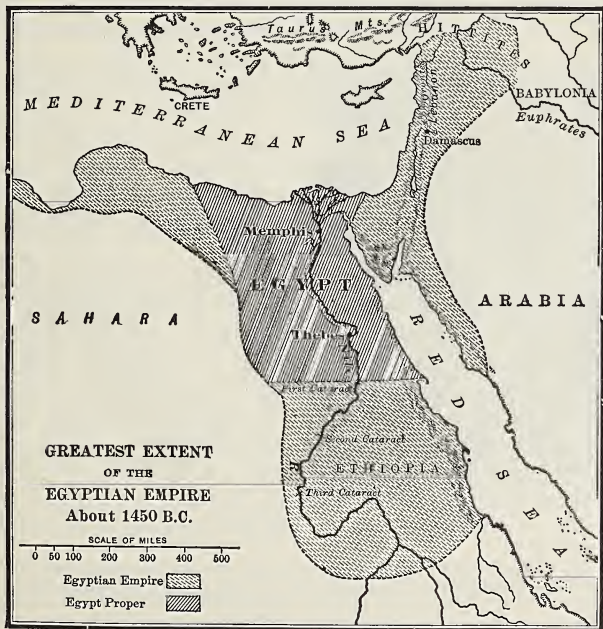
Rivalry among Sumerian city-states

4000 B.C.

3500

3000

The rulers of ancient Egypt are often classified into thirty dynasties, or groups of monarchs. In the Bible every king is called Pharaoh (fā'ro). This, however, is a title and not a name. It means "the big house," which was, of course, the place where



Khufu's Pyramid 2900	Egyptian foreign trade extensive	Chinese civilization under way
	New irrigation works	Abraham moves west 2000?
	Damascus a growing town	
Sargon of Akkad rules in Mesopotamia 2750?	Rise of Babylon	Hammurabi king in Babylon 2100?
3000 B.C.	2500	2000

the king lived, and suggests the luxury and power with which Egyptian kings are associated.

The kings were supposed to be descended from the gods and were even worshiped as divine. They appointed their ministers and helpers to have charge of certain phases of government. They were absolute rulers, at least in theory, though sometimes a weak king would be greatly influenced by priests or nobles.

The next important name after Menes is that of Khū'fū (or Cheops) (kē'ops) (about 2900 B.C.). He caused to be built in the desert, a few miles southwest of the present site of Cairo, that enormous mass of stone which we call the Great Pyramid. About 1800 B.C. conquerors known as the Hÿk'sōs, or Shepherd Kings, came into Egypt and ruled until they were driven out some centuries later.

A new line of native kings spread the rule of Egypt over other lands. Palestine and Syria, even to the Euphrates River, were overrun for a while by Egyptian armies; and the islands of Crête and Cÿprus at times paid tribute to Egypt. Thot'mes (or Thut'mose) III¹ (about 1475 B.C.) was the most successful conqueror of all. Just before him his half-sister and wife, Queen Hatshëp'sut, ruled the country—the first great woman ruler. Both her deeds and her picture make us think she was a fine, intelligent woman. After her death, however, her husband tried to cover up every trace that she had had anything to do with the

¹ When different people translate Egyptian and other ancient names into English, they sometimes use different spellings; but you can usually tell what personage is referred to. Don't be surprised, either, at finding different dates for some persons and events, for students of ancient history differ about these too.

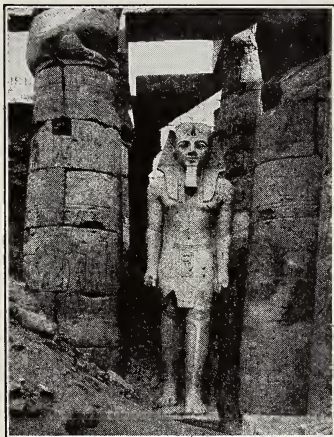
Hyksos kings in Egypt	Thotmes III	Hebrew Exodus	Hebrews fight Philistines
	Cretan civilization at its best		Phoenician commerce
		Trojan War	
Kassite conquerors in Mesopotamia	Rise of Hittites	Dorians come south	Mayas (Central America)
2000 B.C.	1500		1000

government. Rām'ses II (died about 1225 B.C.) is supposed to have been the king who oppressed the Hebrews.

In later years the power of Egypt declined. For many centuries the country was under foreign control. The Assūr'ians conquered Egypt about 670 B.C.; and Persians, Macedō'nians, Romans, Arabs, Turks, and British have ruled over Egypt at one time or another. (Refer to time-graphs on pages 51, 113, and 161.)

Would an absolute monarchy such as ancient Egypt had be likely to serve as the best form of government at that time? What is the status of the government of Egypt today?

20. Industry and Society in Ancient Egypt. — The foundation of Egyptian life was agriculture. Wheat, barley, and all kinds of vegetables grew rapidly. In many cases three crops were produced from the same land in one year. Oxen pulled a rough wooden plow not much better than a sharp stick, while a man walked behind and guided it. After the seeds were sprinkled



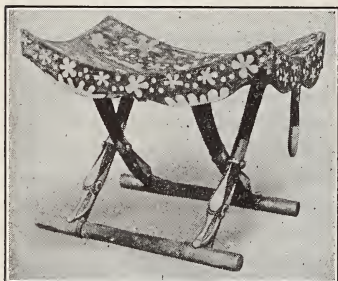
RAMESES II

Ewing Galloway

This statue of one of the famous Egyptian pharaohs illustrates well the solid, massive style of Egyptian architecture. Observe the size of the columns enclosing the statue.

over the surface, sheep were sometimes driven over the fields to trample them into the earth. Grain was harvested and threshed with the sickle and flail. If this all seems crude, just recall that Americans did not do much better in the days of George Washington.

Egypt also had skilled workers in linen, glass, and jewelry; and all sorts of articles were made from copper, bronze, and gold. It



New York Times Official Picture

CRAFTSMANSHIP OF ANCIENT EGYPT

Ivory, ebony, and gold form a large part of the material of which this stool is made. It is fashioned to look like an animal's skin thrown over folding supports.

Ancient Egypt had almost nothing that we would call money, except pieces of gold known as "cow gold," because each was supposed to represent the value of a cow. When used in trade, the gold, as well as the things for which it was traded, had to be carefully weighed. Most trading, however, was done by direct exchange of one kind of goods for another. Even taxes were paid in farm products.

In Egypt and also in some other Oriental countries the people may be thought of as arranged in a sort of social pyramid. At the top was the king, supposed to own all the land and have authority over everybody. Next were the nobles. They possessed much of the land through grants from the king and sometimes had considerable influence over him. The priests also were high in rank and influence, especially because they were supposed to have favor

would take a very clever worker today to carve precious stones by hand and make such metal work as we have found in the tombs of Egyptian kings.

Merchants carried on business in the towns, and traders built ships that sailed on the Red Sea and the Nile. Some even went out to Phoenicia, Crete, and Cyprus. One pharaoh constructed a canal from the eastern mouth of the Nile to the Red Sea, a forerunner of the Suëz' Canal, but the Egyptians did not make it a permanent water course.

with the gods. They were, on the whole, the best educated people of the country.

Below them was the middle class, made up of such people as doctors, lawyers, merchants, and scribes. A wealthy man might have to hire a scribe to write a letter for him; when it was delivered, the recipient might have to hire another scribe to read it. This middle class was usually somewhat discontented because its members felt that they were as good as anybody but were often looked down upon by those in higher places.

Below them were the artisans and the peasants. The artisans were workers in metal or stone. Some were very skillful. The peasants were agricultural laborers who lived in dirty mud huts and kept themselves alive on rather scanty rations of bread and fish.

At the base of the pyramid were the slaves. They were always very numerous, though perhaps not so much so in Egypt as in certain other countries. Most of them were captives taken in war. Kings sometimes went out on expeditions for the sole purpose of collecting slaves. Criminals and people who could not pay their debts were sometimes sold as slaves. "Man has a back," said an Egyptian proverb, "and it obeys only when it is beaten." All a slave got out of life was some sort of crude shelter, a few scraps of clothing, enough food to keep him alive, and work, work.



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KING TUTANKHAMEN AND HIS QUEEN

This picture is from the back panel of the royal coronation throne, which was made partly from beautiful glass and precious stones. Above them the sun appears, radiating life. Do this youthful king and queen suggest the type of person that you commonly think of in connection with ancient Egypt? The picture comes from the Egyptian Department of the Metropolitan Museum of Art in New York.

work! Yet in drawings of that time slaves are sometimes represented as singing or otherwise apparently enjoying themselves.

People were not expected to rise out of the social class in which they were born. An exceptionally bright boy, however, even though the son of a peasant, might have some chance to rise to the middle class or even become a priest; and a rich merchant might occasionally be made a noble. Most of the taxes were paid by the artisans, peasants, and middle class. Well-to-do families lived in comfort, and even luxury, in attractive houses built around fine inner courtyards with trees, flowers, and places where children might play.

Women were much better off in ancient Egypt than in most other Oriental countries. Among the lower classes they had to work hard, but among the upper classes they had the right to appear in public and could own property in their own name. Pictures of some of the women of high rank that have come down to us suggest that they could give "beauty" lessons to some of our modern maids (page 2). The Egyptian woman of today, with her hideous black veil and, if she is of high social standing, her retired life, might well wish for the return of the ancient days when woman was man's companion rather than his servant.

Have you ever read a story of any slave who rose to a high position in ancient Egypt? Has a person more, or less, chance to rise when everybody has some education or when only a few are educated?

21. Egyptian Knowledge and Culture. — When the waters of the Nile poured out over the flood lands, they often covered up or carried away all the boundary marks that had been set up. So geometry and surveying had to be developed in order to lay out these lands again after the waters had subsided, and Egyptians were good in these branches of mathematics. They had a system of reckoning based on ten, as our own is. Bright, clear skies encouraged an interest in the stars, but Egyptians did not develop scientific astronomy. They worked out a calendar of twelve months, with thirty days each, and added five days more for sacred days to make the full year; but in failing to allow for the extra quarter-day which we make up in leap years, they found themselves much of the time far "off the track" in matching their calendar with the seasons.

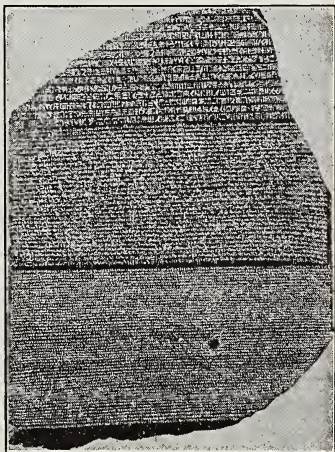
What difficulties might people have to overcome in making out a calendar or system of reckoning time by day or night?

Education in Egypt was limited mostly to the priests and the wealthy. Boys from some wealthy families associated themselves with priests and learned from them personally rather than by attending formal schools. There was literature of almost every kind, but very little of it has come down to us.

Egyptian writing is immensely interesting. It started with picture writing, or *hi'ero-glyph'ics* (the word means "priest writing"). (See the pictures on pages 5, 44, 45.) Later this was simplified into the *hierät'ic*, and then into a kind of writing known as the *demöt'ic*, or "language of the people." Some of Napoleon Bonaparte's troops in Egypt in 1799 found the "Rosetta Stone," on which there were three inscriptions — one in hieroglyphics, one in the simplified Egyptian writing, and one in Greek. A Frenchman named Champollion (shän-pol-yōn') guessed that the three inscriptions all said the same

thing, and after years of study discovered the meaning of some of the symbols and pointed the way for later students to work out the rest.

Early Egyptians inscribed their records on stone, but later they learned to use the papyrus, a reed which grew in the Nile. They cut its stalk into strips, laid them crosswise on one another, and pressed them down into a substance on which one could write with ink made by mixing vegetable gum and soot with water. Papyrus



Ewing Galloway

THE ROSETTA STONE

A close view of the famous stone discovered by some of Napoleon's soldiers in Egypt in 1799. The three kinds of writing are distinguishable — the hieroglyphic, the hieratic, and the Greek — though none of the three parts is today complete. If you ever visit the British Museum in London, be sure to look for this.



EGYPTIAN PAPYRUS

Ewing Galloway

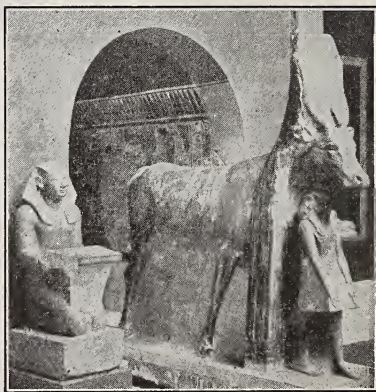
This papyrus with its hieroglyphic writing dates back to about 1025 B.C. At the top you see a drawing of Egyptian farmers at work.

Some animals, such as the cat, the crocodile, the sacred bull, and the bird ibis, were treated with reverence.

Egyptians believed that every man had a spirit, or "double," which left the body at the time of death. Since the spirit might wish to return to the body after death, the body was preserved. It was treated with oil, resin, and spices, and wrapped around with yards and yards of linen. Then a case, the *sarcophagus*, was made to hold this preserved body, or *mummy*. The covering was often carved or painted to

rolls came to be the most common form of written material among them. (You see where we get our word *paper*.) The writing was done with a pointed reed which served the same purpose as our pens. Like many other ancient peoples, the Egyptians began at the right edge of the paper and wrote to the left.

Egyptians were religious. The sun was worshiped as the highest of the gods, being known at different times as Horus, Ra or Re, and Aton (ä'ton).



A SACRED COW

Ewing Galloway

In the Museum at Cairo you may see today this statue of a sacred animal of ancient Egypt.

look somewhat like the face of the dead person. Kings constructed pyramids and costly rock caverns as tombs for themselves.

The Egyptians, more than any other ancient people, looked forward to a future life in a happier world. They believed that one's life here has much to do with his happiness in the world beyond. The soul had to go before the judge, Osiris, and make



A MUMMY AT THE SEPULCHER

This picture from an ancient papyrus represents the prepared body of the dead person being received by a divinity.

confession as to the way it had lived. *The Book of the Dead*, one of the few pieces of Egyptian literature which have not perished, contains among other things the list of forty-two sins which the soul should be prepared to declare it had not committed. The soul should be able to say, for example, "I did not steal," "I did not lie," "I did not kill any sacred animals," "I did not revile my father," "I did not make anyone weep." If the soul could honestly make this "Negative Confession," it was allowed to dwell in the land of the blessed. If not, its heart was thrown out to the Eater of the Dead. The best thinkers among the Egyptians had very modern ideas of social justice, and may have had much influence upon the Hebrew prophets of later times.

King Amenhō'tep IV, or Ikhnä'ton as he later called himself, tried to set up Aton, the sun god, as the only one to be worshiped throughout Egypt; but the idea of only one god was too advanced for most of his people. After Ikhnaton's death, his son-in-law, Tutankhā'men, allowed the priests to restore the old religion. Though Tutankhamen was still in his 'teens when he died, the



© Landrock from Ewing Galloway

THE AVENUE OF THE SPHINXES AT KARNAK

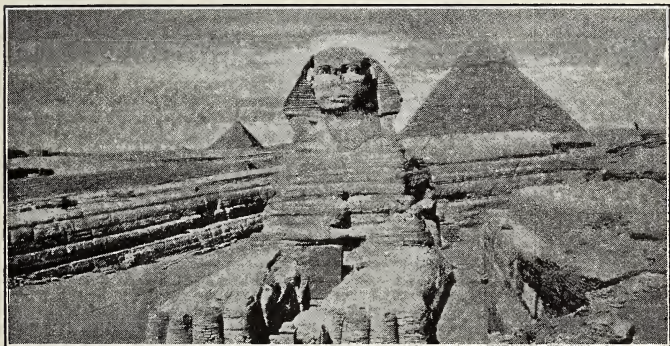
In the distance is the river Nile and nearer are palm trees and some of the mud huts which form a part of many an Egyptian landscape today.

priests saw to it that in his death he was honored as few monarchs ever were. When a few years ago his tomb was opened, almost unbelievable amounts of jewels, gold, and costly furniture were found in it, adding much to our knowledge of ancient Egyptian life. (Recall the picture of the young king and queen on page 41.)

Pyramids, obelisks, and such massive temples as those at Karnak and Luxor are impressive remains of the grandeur of ancient Egypt. Nearly every important building in Egypt was a temple or a tomb constructed of age-enduring stone. Enormous size was a part of the Egyptian idea of achievement in architecture. To do honor to a king or divinity one must make his statue big. On the walls of tombs and temples are shown picture after picture

that indicate the life and activities of the times. While many of these are stiff and awkward, it is easy to tell what they represent.

Best known of all these memorials are the pyramids. The Great Pyramid of Khufu is said to have taken the back-breaking toil of 100,000 men twenty years to build.¹ Famous, too, among all ancient sculpture is the Sphinx, which for centuries has sat out in the desert not far from the Great Pyramid, making people wonder why it was constructed and what it represents. Sphinxes



THE SPHINX AND THE PYRAMIDS

The desert sands covered for many years the paws of the Sphinx, but now one may see it in full size. You may judge its massiveness by the size of the man at the very front center of the picture. It is now believed that the face represents that of the king who had the statue constructed.

of smaller size have also been preserved. Several Egyptian obelisks have been carried to other lands, bearing their inscriptions and pictures of ancient days.

What impression does size in sculpture make upon you? It is said that the Great Pyramid and the others near it were placed where they

¹ Its base covers about thirteen acres, and it was originally 480 feet high. From a distance and in small pictures the pyramids look as if their outside was smooth, and that was the case once. But now when a tourist attempts to climb one, he finds that he must be pushed or pulled up over block after block of stone three or four feet high. So well was the Great Pyramid constructed that through all the centuries the passageway into the chambers within it was practically unchanged, in spite of the enormous weight of the stone. So skillfully were the stones cut that they rest against and upon one another so closely that one can hardly stick a jack-knife blade between them.

were because it was about as far to the west, or the setting sun, as could be conveniently reached. Does this idea suggest the expression, "going west," which was used during the World War? Do you consider the religious ideas of the Egyptians advanced for their day? Of what importance in religion is the belief in a future life?

Start Project 1 on page 72 and as many of Projects 2 to 4 as you intend to do.

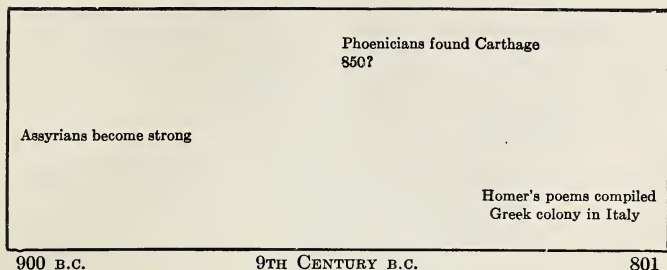


HAGSTROM COMPANY, N. Y., Map Makers

BABYLONIAN AND ASSYRIAN EMPIRES

22. The Kingdoms in the Valley of the Two Rivers. — Now let us take the magic carpet again and return to the valley of the Tigris and Euphrates. Maybe civilization began there as early as in Egypt, though we have no sure evidence. In this valley, a part of which is referred to in the Bible as the "Land of Shī'nar," several peoples took turns at being leaders or rulers — Sūmē'rians, Babylonians, Assyrians, and Chaldeans (kaldē'ans).

The Sumerians came into this famous valley perhaps about 4000 B.C. They lived in cities, states, or tribes, somewhat as did



900 B.C.

9TH CENTURY B.C.

801

See page 59 for the time-graph of the 10th century B.C.

the early people of Egypt. They built irrigation systems, and were the first people we know of who used wheels. About 2750 B.C. a chieftain named Sargon, whose people were Semitic — not Hamitic like those of Egypt — conquered the Sumerians and made himself a sort of monarch of the entire valley. After a while conquerors and conquered virtually merged into one nation known as Sumer and Akkad. (See time-graphs on pages 37 and 38.)

Another line of kings made Bāb'ylon their capital and raised it to a place of leadership. Greatest of these was Hammurabi (about 2100 B.C.). He was a real statesman, establishing order and good government throughout his kingdom, putting up new buildings, and bettering the irrigation system. Most noted of all his achievements was the compiling of the famous "Code of Hammurabi." It dealt with many topics. "An eye for an eye, and a tooth for a tooth" was one of its principles; but the rich man who harmed a poor man could get off with a fine, though he would have had to lose his own eye or have his own leg broken if he had inflicted such harm upon one of his own rank. We can find many faults in this code of laws, but it was the earliest one we know of. Many of its provisions are found in the laws of Moses and other legal codes.

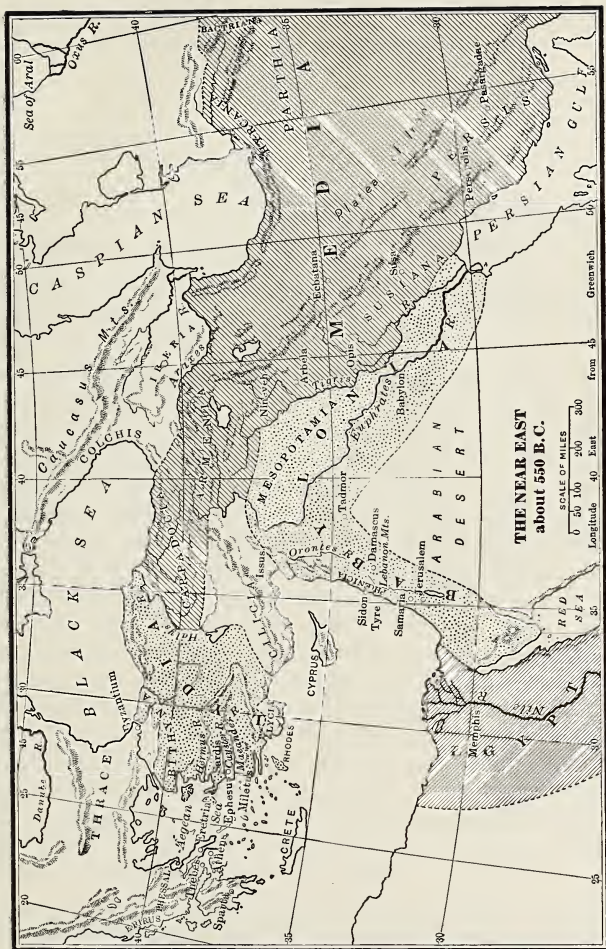
After Hammurabi the early Babylonian kingdom declined in power. In the course of time the Assyrians, named from one of their chief cities, Assur, in the upper part of the Tigris Valley, became independent; and about 1250 B.C. they conquered the southern part of the valley. They had learned from another an-

Assyrian conquests expand		Sargon II takes Israel captive 722
	Amos preaching	
First recorded Olympic games 776		
Rise of Athens, Sparta, and Corinth		Numerous Greek colonies
Legendary founding of Rome 753		
800 B.C.	8TH CENTURY B.C.	701

cient people, the Hit'tites, how to use iron in making weapons of war. In the eighth century B.C. they carried their conquests to the Mediterranean Sea and a little later even mastered Egypt for some years. Nineveh became famous as their capital. Assyrian kings bragged about their heartlessness. They put up inscriptions which tell about the prisoners whom they buried or skinned alive and the captives whose hands, noses, ears, or fingers they cut off. One king describes a pile of heads which he threw together after a victory. One notable king was Sargon II, who conquered the northern kingdom of the Hebrews (722 B.C.) and carried the people into captivity. They became the "Lost Tribes of Israel."

Do modern fighters commit such atrocities? Can war ever be other than cruel? Read the story of Sennacherib (sen-nāk'ē-rib) in II Kings XVIII, 13 to XIX, 37, and Byron's poem beginning: "The Assyrian came down like a wolf on the fold."

The cruelty and tyranny of the Assyrian rulers made people hate them and become jealous; and their empire, built upon conquest, collapsed rather suddenly. In 612 B.C. the king of the Mēdes, who came into Assyria from the north, and the king of the Chaldeans, who now ruled in Babylonia, joined in an attack on Nineveh and wiped it out. Then under the leadership of Nebuchadnezzar (604-561 B.C.) Babylon once more rose to glory for a little while. It was he who carried captive to Babylonia the southern Hebrew kingdom (586 B.C.). This Chaldean, or second Babylonian kingdom, in turn did not last. Cyrus, king of Persia, invaded the country and captured Babylon in 539 B.C. From that time Babylon was simply one of the cities of an empire ruled by conquerors. (See the time-graph on page 54.)



Nineveh made Assyrian capital	Assyrians conquer Egypt, 670; expelled, 651	Ashurbanipal collects his library	Assyrian Empire overthrown 612 Chaldean Em- pire starts; Nebuchadnezzar king 604-(561)
	Byzantium founded 657	Greek commerce becomes widespread	
	Sparta a typical aristocracy	Athens moves toward democracy	
700 B.C.	7TH CENTURY B.C.		601

Read in the book of Daniel numerous references to the later days of Babylonia's leadership. Study the map on page 48 and that facing page 50 to identify the geography of Sections 22 to 25.

23. Babylonian and Assyrian Industry and Trade. — The Tigris-Euphrates Valley was famous among early peoples for its fertility and productiveness. Grains and vegetables and fruits of all kinds were grown. Later the cultivation of the soil was neglected, and irrigation works fell into disuse.

Manufactures — by hand, of course — were well developed. The Assyrians may have surpassed even the Egyptians in cutting jewelry. They made pottery and metal work of high quality, and fine cloth, tapestry, and carpets.

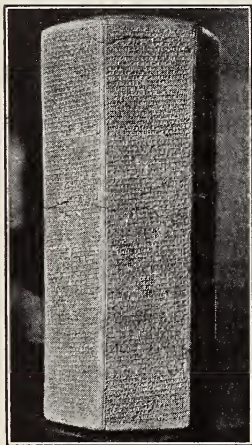
Babylon and Nineveh were great centers of trade. Water commerce was carried on with India by way of the Persian Gulf. Caravans went overland to India and even to China, while to the west merchants dealt with Phoenicia and Egypt.

This activity in business and trade caused the Babylonians and Assyrians to develop commercial law to a high degree. All transactions of any importance were recorded. Owners of property had to have a seal, and the clay tablets on which records were kept showed the marks of this seal in place of a person's name. There was even the beginning of banking.

Do you suppose from what we have said here that business was carried on more intelligently among the ancient Babylonians than among the early settlers of the English colonies in America?

24. Babylonian and Assyrian Living and Learning. — The great buildings of Babylonia did not last as did those of Egypt.

Babylonia had little stone handy, but plenty of clay. The poor people lived in huts much like the adobe shacks of our southwestern states. Even great temples and mansions were constructed of clay, usually made into the form of bricks. Assyrian and Babylonian temples were most often built in the form of towers with several stories, each one narrower than the one below it. (Read Genesis XI, 1-9, for a story about one of them.)



AN ASSYRIAN BOOK

On the sides of this "book" of baked clay are recorded the stories of campaigns of the Assyrian King Sennacherib. The original is now in the British Museum.

About all the sculpture that remains from these people once formed a part of some of their temples. There was stone in Assyria which was occasionally used for this purpose. Some of the figures of men and animals are natural, but more of them are strange and awkward.

Nebuchadnezzar tried to make Babylon the most beautiful city in the world. He built an enormous wall around it so thick that a four-horse chariot could turn on the top of it. He put up beautiful palaces and temples. He claimed for himself and his father the credit for constructing the first asphalt pavement in history — a thing which men did not do again until the century just before our own. Most famous of all his undertakings was the building of the Hanging Gardens, which

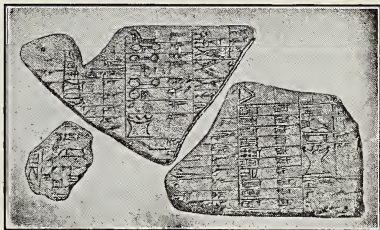
he constructed to please his queen, who had come from Media and was lonesome for "the hills of home." They consisted of a series of arches and platforms rising seventy-five feet or more and were filled with beautiful trees and flowers.

Clay furnished the means of keeping records in Assyria and Babylonia as well as of making buildings. It could be preserved better than Egyptian papyrus or modern paper. An iron instrument was used to press characters on a clay tablet, and then the tablet was baked until it became hard. Sometimes another

coating of clay was put on, either like an envelope or with the same matter or some different matter worked upon it. Since the characters were wedge-shaped, this kind of writing is usually called *cunē'iform*, from the Latin word *cuneus*, which means "wedge." An enormous inscription found on the Rock of Behistun' in western Persia, with the same statements in the languages of Persia, Babylonia, and Susa, a district and city east of the Persian Gulf, enabled us after many centuries to solve the cuneiform writing, just as the Rosetta Stone disclosed the meaning of the Egyptian hieroglyphics.

(Cuneiform symbols are shown in the time-and-unit chart at the top of page 5.)

It is hard to tell just how extensive education was among the people of Babylonia and Assyria. They developed mathematics considerably, but built their system of counting on sixty rather than one hundred. Business



ANCIENT LANGUAGE LESSONS

On the tablet of which these fragments formed a part were hieroglyphics and cuneiform words in parallel columns. They might have been used by students learning one language or the other.

men paid so much attention to law and the keeping of records that one would think they must have been well educated. Kings who boasted of their cruelty to their captives in war showed considerable interest in learning and literature. King Assurbā'nīpal of Assyria was responsible for the collection of a library that was big for his time; 22,000 tablets from it have been preserved.

In the surviving literature of these people there is one epic which tells how the god Marduk created the world after conquering a dragon. Another gives an account of a great flood so much like that we read about in the story of Noah in the Bible that it seems probable both stories came from the same source. Babylonians and Assyrians were very superstitious. They had many gods and believed much in demons and evil spirits.

The Chaldeans were particularly interested in the study of the stars, but their "astronomy" was chiefly what we should call

astrology. They believed in lucky stars and the effect of the position of stars and planets when a person was born. Kings and private citizens alike consulted astrologers and soothsayers before doing anything important. So closely connected was astrology with the history of these people that in later times in Europe any astrologer might be called a Chaldean. Yet the Chaldeans' study of the stars was not all foolish or superstitious. They formed the "signs of the zodiac" (p. 6) to which we still refer. They were familiar with five planets, and could foretell eclipses. They divided the circle of the heavens into 360°. Our own weeks, hours, minutes, and seconds may have begun with them.

Look up the reference to Chaldean astrologers in Daniel II. Do we have anything to do with astrologers today? Why does foretelling eclipses show a rather advanced stage of learning?

			Confucius born 551 (China)		
		Gautama (Buddha) born 568 (India)			
Nebuchadnezzar (Babylon)			Cyrus, King of Persia		Darius I (Persia)
(604)	561	558	529	521	(485)
Captivity of Jews 586			Return of Jews 536		
Thales		Croesus			
		560 (Lydia) 546			
Solon's reforms (Athens) 594			Pythagoras		Clisthenes (Athens) 508
Sappho					Rome a republic 509?
600 B.C.		6TH CENTURY B.C.			500

Phases of later Persian history are referred to in the time-graphs on pages 93 and 109.

25. Persia, the First "World Empire."— "World empire" suggests to us a powerful government ruling over an extensive territory and wielding authority over people of many races and tongues. Persia was the first Oriental power that could measure up to this definition. The Persians and Medes were Indo-European or Aryan, rather than Semitic like the Babylonians and Assyrians, or Hamitic like the Egyptians. Egypt, Babylonia, Assyria, Chaldea, and several smaller powers had risen and fallen in the Near East. Persia took them all in.

The power of Persia blossomed out suddenly. Cyrus, its first great king (558-529 B.C.), began by extending his authority over

the Medes. Then he conquered the kingdom of Lȳd'ia, in Asia Minor (546 B.C.), and the city of Babylon (539 B.C.). His son, Cambȳ'ses, annexed Egypt. Next came Darī'us I (521–485 B.C.), who added some of northwestern India, and even extended Persian authority across the Bos'porus into Europe. By this time the Persian Empire was the greatest dominion the world had seen,



extending from the Indus River in the east to the Nile on the south-west and the Danube on the north. It stretched about 3000 miles from east to west and included more territory than that under the American flag today. Yet it lasted only about 200 years.

To govern such an enormous territory the Persian rulers had to work out a new system. The whole Persian dominion was divided into twenty provinces, with a governor, or *sā'trap*, at the head of each one. Agents, known as "the king's ears and eyes," went out from the king from time to time to see how things were going in the various satrapies. The kings themselves, though most of them ruled justly, lived in the most regal state, surrounded with many signs of power and luxury. If anyone dared to approach the king without special permission, he might lose his head.

Read the story of Esther and King Ahāsue'rus in the Bible. That king is more commonly known in history as Xerxes (zerx'ēz).

The Persian rulers allowed the people in different parts of the Empire to use their own language or religion, as long as they were obedient to Persian rule. The main thing necessary was to respect Persian authority and pay taxes. Good roads — for those days — were built from one part of the Empire to another. The most famous of these was the Royal Road from Susa, where the kings lived, to Sardis near the coast of Asia Minor — over 1500 miles long. Couriers carrying mail and messages, with relays of fast horses, regularly traveled this route and were said to be able to make the whole distance in a week. This has been called the first postal system in the world.

The Persians developed no original art or literature, except religious writings. A notable religion, however, was taught by Zārāthūs'trā, or Zōrōās'ter, as the Greeks called him, who may have lived as far back as 1000 B.C. The writings which contain his teachings are called the *Zend-Avest'a*, which might be considered the Bible of the ancient Persians. Zoroaster taught that there was a constant struggle between Mazda, or Ahura Mazda (ā'hoo-ra mǎz'da), the god of Light and Goodness, and Ahriman', the spirit of Darkness and Evil. Does this remind you of some Christian teaching about God and Satan? Eventually Mazda would triumph, but it was the duty of every person to help the god of Light overcome the power of Darkness. No other ancient people except the Hebrews taught such direct connection between upright living and religion. Herodotus says that Persian boys were taught particularly to do three things: "to ride, to use the bow, and to speak the truth."

Zoroaster's lofty teachings did not get a complete hold upon all the people, however. Originally, Persians were Nature worshipers, especially reverencing the sun, the moon, the stars, and fire. Their priests were known as Magi (mā'ji), and it is from them that we get the word *magic*, which itself suggests some of the practices in which these priests indulged.

Do you see any connection between a modern use of the word *Mazda* and the historical meaning? If the ancient Persians had such successful organizers and generals, why do you suppose Persia (Iran) today is

a relatively unimportant country? Why are good highways valuable as a means of holding a country together? Why do you suppose ancient monarchs so often thought it desirable to live apart from their people?

26. The Story of the Hebrew People. — Some of the greatest gifts of ancient men came through a people who never occupied or ruled over any great amount of territory. Palestine has an area about the same as the state of Vermont. Surely you know the chief features of the story of the ancient Hebrews. Shouldn't you, anyway? It is a part of the religious history of half the human race.

Hebrew history goes back to Abraham, the leader of a group of shepherds or herdsmen who moved from "Ur of the Chaldees" into Palestine about 2000 B.C. Today we would probably call him an Oriental sheik. His descendants went down into Egypt, where one of them, Joseph, was for a time next in authority to the Pharaoh himself. Then the "Shepherd Kings" were driven out,

and their successors, "who knew not Joseph," persecuted the Hebrews. A great man, Moses, finally became the leader of the Hebrews (about 1250 B.C.), and under his direction they escaped from their bondage and wandered in the peninsula of Sinai (sī'nī)



PALESTINE, PHOENICIA, AND SYRIA

The heavy boundary line indicates the extent of Solomon's kingdom, when Hebrew rule reached its greatest extent. Light dotted lines indicate boundaries of the separate kingdoms. None of these boundaries should be considered exact or stable.

Names printed in Roman, as Jerusalem, apply to places having both ancient and modern significance. Names in Roman, but enclosed in parentheses, as (Samaria), apply to places having no significance today. Purely modern place names, as *Tel-Aviv*, shown to aid in making locations definite, are in italics.

Modern names for ancient towns are enclosed in parentheses, as Shechem (*Nabulus*).

for about forty years. Under Moses' successor, Joshua, they crossed from the east of the Jordan into Palestine, or Cā'naan, as they then called it, and began their conquest of the country.

From the Bible story review the careers of Isaac, Jacob, Joseph and his brothers, and Moses.

For some time the Hebrews continued to live as tribes — "The Twelve Tribes" — with priests or "judges" as their leaders. When the people thought that they wanted a king so as to be like their neighbors, the priest-judge Samuel anointed Saul to that office. His successor was David, whom we first hear of as a little shepherd boy. David was a fighting man, and under him and his son Solomon, Hebrew rule was extended southwest toward Egypt and northeast toward the Euphrates. David was a many-sided character. Besides conquering Jerusalem and making it his capital city, he wrote many of the Psalms which form one of the notable books of the Bible.

Solomon, now that the Hebrews had pretty well settled down, was in a position to build a temple, instead of using as the center of worship a "tabernacle" or tent which had been carried around from one place to another. With the help of Hiram, king of the Phoenician city of Tyre, he put up a famous and beautiful structure. Solomon is famous for his great wisdom, but we sometimes wonder why. He could not rule his own family wisely. He delighted in Oriental luxury and splendor and burdened his people with taxes and debt.

Do you know any stories of Solomon's wisdom? The Proverbs, which are often credited to Solomon, were probably collected under his direction rather than invented by him. Can you repeat some of them?

After Solomon's son became king, ten tribes occupying the northern part of Palestine broke away and formed the separate kingdom of Israel, with its capital city at Samā'ria, while the two remaining tribes became the kingdom of Judah, with Jerusalem as its capital. The northern kingdom, carried captive by Sargon II of Assyria (722 B.C.), disappeared from history. Nebuchadnezzar's capture of the southern kingdom (586 B.C.) did not destroy the people's national spirit or life, however. After Cyrus of Persia conquered Babylon and discovered how homesick some of

Phoenicians distributing an alphabet	Hiram, king of Tyre	
David takes Jerusalem	Solomon, king of the Hebrews	{ Kingdom of Israel Kingdom of Judah
	955?	
? Zoroaster preaching in Persia		925?
	Aryan civilization rising in India	
	New city-states in Greece	
Etruscans in Italy		
1000 B.C.	10TH CENTURY B.C.	901

For other time relations in ancient Hebrew history see the time-graphs on pages 38, 39, 50, and 54.

the people were for their native Jerusalem, he allowed those who wished to do so to go back and rebuild the city. They never became a powerful kingdom, but Palestine was their national home for several hundred years.

Can you find in the Psalms some evidences of the way the Hebrews felt while they were captives "by the rivers of Babylon"? Jewish people today are not much interested in war and are often strong advocates of peace. Do you think there is anything in their national history that is responsible for this attitude?

27. What We Owe to the Hebrews. — The great contributions of the Hebrews to the world were not business or government, but a great idea and a great book. The idea was that there is *one God* (*monotheism*). The Hebrews called their God Yāh'weh, which we usually incorrectly spell and pronounce Jehō'vah. At first they looked upon Him as their own peculiar protector, just as the neighboring nations had their particular gods. But they finally became convinced that Yahweh was the ruler of all the world. He was pleased not so much when people made sacrifices and offerings to Him as when they lived rightly. Said one of the great Hebrew prophets, "What doth the Lord require of thee but to do justly and love mercy and walk humbly with thy God!" The Ten Commandments, which Moses presented to his people on Mt. Sinai, underlie all moral teaching today.

The religion of the Hebrews also laid down requirements for conduct in worship and in everyday life. They were to observe

the Sabbath faithfully and other special days of feasting or sacrifice. Their "dietary laws" were intended to help them look out for their health in times when few people paid any attention to that sort of thing. Since the Hebrews took literally the Commandment not to "make any graven image or any likeness," they never gave much attention to sculpture and painting. Perhaps

- בְּרֵאשִׁית בָּרָא אֱלֹהִים אֶת הַשָּׁמַיִם וְאֶת הָאָרֶץ *
 2 וְהָאָרֶץ הָיְתָה תֵּהוֹ וְכָהוּ וְחָשֶׁךְ עַל-פְּנֵי תְהוֹם וְרוּחַ
 אֱלֹהִים מְרַחֶפֶת עַל-פְּנֵי הַמַּיִם:
 3 וַיֹּאמֶר אֱלֹהִים יְהי-אֹר וַיְהי-אֹר:
 4 וַיֵּרָא אֱלֹהִים אֶת-הָאֹר כִּי-טוֹב וַיְבָרֶךְ אֱלֹהִים בֵּין הָאֹר
 וּבֵין הַחָשֶׁךְ:

THE FIRST FOUR VERSES OF GENESIS IN HEBREW

The Hebrew alphabet has twenty-two letters. They are all consonants. Vowels are indicated by "points" or little marks below, above, or beside the consonants. These vowel marks were not used in writing in ancient times. Like some other languages, Hebrew begins at the right and reads to the left. The first verse, if put in English letters, might read somewhat like this: *Bērāshēth' bārā Elohim' āth ha-shamā'yim v'ēth hāā'rets*. "Elohim" is the word for God. Now, if you don't remember, look up the way to say this verse and the other three in English.

this handicapped their genius, but at least it helped them to believe in God as a spirit and reduced the temptation to set up idols of wood or stone to worship.

The book which we call the Bible was the other great contribution of the Hebrews. The name in Greek — βιβλος — means "book."¹ It is really a collection of books rather than one book. In the form commonly used by Protestants there are thirty-nine books in the Old Testament and twenty-seven in the New — 66 in all. Roman Catholics include six additional books, making the total seventy-two. Though Jewish people do not count the New Testament as a part of their sacred writings, most of it was written by men who were Jewish by birth, and it centers around the life and teachings of Jesus who himself came from a Jewish family.

¹ From the Phoenician town of Byblos the Greeks obtained papyrus on which they might write, and called the material after the name of the town.

After the captivity in Babylon, the Hebrew people were more devoted than ever to the maintenance of their distinct customs, both as a race and in religion. Not till after the captivity did they put their religious writings together in anything like the form in which we know them. It is thought that the book of the prophet Amos was the earliest to be written in the form in which we have it. Other books were compiled from earlier sources and edited, some a little earlier and some later than 400 B.C. The Hebrews thought of the Old Testament as divided into three parts: the first five books known as "The Law"; other historical books and those running from Isă'iah to Măl'ăchī called "The Prophets"; and the rest of the Old Testament known as "The Other Writings of the Fathers."

Most churches teach that the writers of the Bible were divinely inspired. How do you suppose the inspiration came to them? If by some means every printed Bible were destroyed, do you think the book could be replaced?

28. The Phoenicians, Sailors and Colonizers. — On the narrow strip of land between the Lebanon Mountains and the Mediterranean coast lived the Phoenicians. The famous "cedars of Lebanon" furnished fine wood for ships. From about 1100 B.C. for several centuries the Phoenicians might fairly be called the "seamen of the Ancient World." Their two chief cities were Tyre and Si'don. Trade and money-making were their chief interests. They could fight if they had to, but they preferred to pay tribute to the rulers of other countries in return for being allowed to carry on trade by land or sea.

Use the maps on pages 57 and 91 for locations mentioned in this section.

The first regions visited by the Phoenicians may have been the nearest islands in the Mediterranean, Cyprus and Crête. They traded in the lands around the Black Sea until the Greeks took control of that region. They bartered with the natives on the northern coast of Africa, getting gold, ivory, and hides. They went to Spain for silver, tin, lead, and iron. They may even have brought tin from Cornwall in Britain. Everywhere they went they carried the manufactured products of Egypt and Babylonia as

well as their own. They became skillful workers in metals and were famous for the purple dye made from a snail, which has always been called Tŷr'ian purple. Trading posts and sometimes good-sized towns grew up around their storehouses. Two of the most famous of these were Car'thage on the northern coast of Africa, which we shall hear of later when we study the history of Rome, and Cā'diz in Spain (originally called Gades).



CEDARS OF LEBANON

Ewing Galloway

One may still see as he passes over the Lebanon Mountains survivals of the famous cedars of ancient times. This particular kind of tree is found hardly anywhere else

The Phoenicians have been called the "missionaries of civilization." Perhaps when we think how devoted they were to money-making, the name "peddlers of civilization" would be more accurate. Yet the best thing that the Phoenicians carried was a way to express ideas. In the early days the Phoenicians used a kind of cuneiform writing. Because that was too awkward for men who had to keep accounts and records, they developed a system of signs based on some of the Egyptian characters, but much simplified and each expressing a sound. This alphabet of twenty-

two letters at first included only consonants, but is the earliest of the kind that we know. (In the illustration on page 24 you may compare the Phoenician letters with earlier and later alphabets.) From the Phoenicians the Greeks adopted these letters, changing their form somewhat and adding vowels.¹ Their alphabet in turn, with some changes, was carried to the Romans, to northern Europe, and to us. So we ourselves owe much to the ancient Phoenicians.

The religion of the Phoenicians seems to us disgusting. To propitiate their god, Bā'al, or Mō'loch, his followers thought they had to offer human sacrifice. They would even heat Moloch's statue to redness and then throw children into its arms. When spreading comforts and conveniences the Phoenicians were simply after profits, but their history is an example of the way even the activities of selfish people sometimes work out for the good of others.

Why would the Phoenicians find an extensive market for tin? Do the articles which the Phoenicians carried in trade play as important a part in modern commerce as in ancient times? Is there any country in the modern world whose activities might correspond to those of the Phoenicians in their day?

How many words beginning with "C" can you connect with Phoenicia? (You can start with "commerce," "colonies," and add more.)

29. Other Ancient Peoples of the Near East. — If we knew all that happened in ancient times, we might say more than we are going to about some other ancient peoples. In the region we know as Syria, for example, lived the Aramē'ans, Semitic people who came out of Arabia and settled there. If you locate their country on the map, you will see how important a position it occupied on those routes through which caravans passed from Egypt to Phoenicia to Nineveh or Babylon. Just as the Phoenicians were the great sea traders, so Arameans were great traders by land. Their language came to be used extensively even in Palestine. There is reason for thinking that Jesus used Aramā'ic rather than Hebrew or any other language, at least part of the time. Their chief city, Damascus, is still important and boasts of being the

¹The word *alphabet* comes from the name of the first two letters in the Greek list — "alpha" and "beta" (ἄλφα, βῆτα).

oldest city in the world that has a continuous history. (Refer to the various maps and time-graphs that have previously appeared and identify the locations and allusions that pertain to people mentioned in this section.)

Another people who at one time (perhaps about 1200 to 1000 B.C.) ruled over much of the Near East were the Hittites. They had wars with the Egyptians and the Assyrians, and are mentioned in the Old Testament. Their country possessed some of the chief iron mines of the Near East, and they were among the first of all peoples to use iron in making weapons of war and tools. They passed out of the picture after Assyria became strong.

West of the Hittite country, though at one time included in it, was Lȳd'ia. Two things we particularly connect with Lydia and its kings: (1) They first used metal coins for money. To make sure that a certain amount of silver or gold was worth what it was supposed to be, Lydian kings stamped on the metal a statement of its weight and their own picture. (2) Through Lydia the culture and products of other Near Eastern countries found one of their chief routes of passage to Europe.

The most famous of all the Lydian rulers was Croesus (crē'sus). Because Lydia had sources of supply of gold and silver and Lydian coins were common, the kings of the country got a reputation for wealth; "rich as Croesus," we sometimes say. Croesus came to an untimely end when he tried to stand in the way of King Cyrus of Persia (546 B.C.). He consulted a Greek oracle (§ 37) which told him that if he fought the Persians he would destroy a great empire. He fought them and destroyed his own.

Before Phœnician sails whitened the sea, the kings of Crete had their vessels going from port to port. While Egyptian civilization was still in the making, Crete and some cities in Greece had produced a standard of living as high as anything the world then knew. Sometimes we call this civilization Minō'an from the name of Mī'nos, a legendary king of Crete. Perhaps you know the legend of the Min'otaur, the bull that was supposed to destroy boys and girls sent to him by way of tribute from other lands.

Excavations in Crete and in Greece have brought to light some remarkable remains of a life long ago destroyed and forgotten.

Beautiful gold cups, bearing carved figures, show wonderfully skillful workmanship. A palace in Crete had bathrooms and plumbing better than anything Europe or the United States knew until far into the nineteenth century. A system of writing was in general use, but we have not yet found any Rosetta Stone or Rock of Behistun to enable us to read it. Enemies of some kind — either barbarians from Europe or rivals from some other source — overcame this promising civilized people and completely wiped them out.



KITCHENWARE FROM KNOSSOS

These articles, which may be four thousand years old, were found in a grave in Crete. Do they not suggest a very high degree of achievement in the making of such things?

Why do you suppose the people mentioned in this section did not take more pains to leave records of their life and achievements? What would be the advantage of having a king's picture on a coin? Would it be a good idea to put the President's picture on United States coins? If you could have visited a market in Damascus about 800 B.C., what do you suppose would have been on sale there? Is there anything in the stories of some of these people to suggest that when they became highly civilized they lost their ability to fight and defend themselves? Do you think there is any danger that the United States will ever meet the fate of ancient Crete?

30. Ancient People Outside the Near East. — If our story could be made big enough to tell how the entire world came to be what it is, we should have to describe the background of the hundreds of millions of people who live in other parts of Asia than the Near East. The nations of western Asia and of Europe knew that there were such places as India and China, because through occasional caravans and voyages by sea they exchanged goods with them. Conquerors belonging to the white race came down into India from some northern region at an unknown date and made themselves masters there. They called themselves Aryans, and were related in language and perhaps in race to the peoples of

Europe. The term "Indo-European" suggests this relationship directly.

Farming, manufacturing, and trade were developed by these distant people, and at times serious thinkers tried to raise the standard of life among them. Did it ever occur to you that all the great religions of the modern world had their beginnings in Asia? Brah'manism and Buddhism (bööd'ism) (§ 350) appeared



RUINS OF ANCIENT MAYA LIFE

Wide World Photos

Some call this the most beautiful example of ancient American architecture that has been preserved. Notice its location today with the forests grown up around it. Though this was discovered before Colonel Lindbergh became famous, you can understand why some similar remains were first seen by him from the air.

in India, and Confü'cianism in China (§ 326), about the same time the Hebrews were suffering their Babylonian captivity.

In recent years we have become immensely interested in a civilization in the New World which until a few years ago we hardly knew existed. Apparently the Mä'yas of Central America and Yucatan' met the same kind of fate that overwhelmed the Cretans. The remains with which we are now becoming familiar show us that they could build well, that they had a calendar, that they could raise rich crops and make many things cleverly, and that they had made some progress in representing ideas by signs and

writing. But something happened! Since neither they nor the ancient people of China and India had much to do with the production of our own civilization, we shall have to slight them in telling our story.

Do you suppose the advanced civilization of the Mayas made them less able to defend themselves? Do you think there could ever have been any communication between these lost civilizations and those that survived?

Refer again to the map following page 14, if you have any doubt as to the location of these ancient civilizations.

31. The Next Center of Civilization, the Mediterranean. — For more than 2000 years such ancient civilization as we know centered in the two great river valleys of the Near East. Then it began to reach out to other lands. Sometimes it just spread naturally and easily from Egypt and Babylonia through trade and travel and conquest. Thus the best features, as well as some of the bad ones, of the civilization of the Ancient Orient were fused into a sort of common civilization for the Near East.

If we were to get the benefit of Oriental civilization, it had to be carried to those who were directly our cultural forefathers. Trade was the chief agency for doing this. The Hittites in Asia Minor had dealings with the Assyrians on the east and the Lydians on the west. Thus the culture and progress of the most advanced countries was passed on to Lydia. As Lydia and its conqueror, Persia, ruled over many Greeks in Asia Minor, it was easy for these Greeks to receive much in the way of learning and material achievement and to improve upon it.

Three peninsulas project from the mainland of Europe into the Mediterranean, and the waters between the eastern peninsula, Greece, and the nearest part of the mainland of Asia are studded with islands. The Cretans, before their civilization was wrecked, carried the products of Egypt and Syria to many parts of the eastern Mediterranean world. Then the Phoenicians succeeded to the place once held by the Cretans, bearing not only goods but ways of living to northern Africa and the western lands of Europe. Thus the Mediterranean became a highway of commerce between the eastern centers where civilization first developed and the lands toward the setting sun. People and language

went along with commerce, and at many points around the Mediterranean Sea races of mixed ancestry and languages of equally mixed parentage could be found years before Greece and then Italy took the center of the stage as makers of history.

See the maps following pages 90 and 148. On a sketch map of the Mediterranean Sea and the Near East, draw lines to indicate the way the first civilizations of the Near East were brought together and then carried to other parts of the world. How far north and how far south do the waters of the Mediterranean reach, as compared with the Atlantic coast of the United States?

What an immense body of water this sea is! If its waters were poured straight down over the soil of the United States, more than one-third of the land would be covered. Yet this vast expanse of water is in itself a distinct unit of the earth's surface. It is almost cut off from the Atlantic Ocean by what the ancients called "the Pillars of Her'culēs." While a ship can easily get out of sight of land in the Mediterranean Sea, it can go mile after mile on many a business or pleasure trip without doing so. That was one reason why, in their little boats, ancient seamen were willing to go so far from home. Civilization now had a much bigger territory in which to grow. For the next two thousand years after the time of Cyrus the Great, the Mediterranean Sea was to be the center of that civilization of the past which is vital to us.

32. What the Ancient Orient Gave to Civilization. — In just a few pages we have traced some of the main facts in the history of many centuries. No doubt it seems a tremendous stretch of time between the days of Menes and those of Cyrus and Darius of Persia. It was a thousand years longer than the time since Christ was on earth. Even if we had time to tell all that men know about this period, there would still be gaps of hundreds of years which would be comparatively empty. But in those unknown years boys and girls played and grew up, men and women toiled and died, as they had done before and have done since, and unconsciously helped to make our world.

Yet was that time really so terribly long? If three generations of people are born in a century, as we usually reckon, how many will you have to pile up in your list of grandparents, great-grandparents, and beyond, to reach the time of Khufu, the pyramid-

builder? Is the number so very great, after all, when you consider that many of you know at least two of these generations personally?

Now that we must leave the story of the ancient nations of the Near East, let us sum up the gifts of the ancient world to modern life. In the list that follows, most of the items mentioned may have been stated before; some may appear for the first time. These are really the "Ideas That Should Stay with Us" as we think of the ancient world. The tourist traveling in those lands today finds up-to-date stores, asphalt roads, automobiles, and street car strikes, that show him that the Near East is fast becoming modernized. We must not let the Modern Near East make us forget the deeds of the Ancient Near East.

GIFTS OF THE ANCIENT WORLD TO MODERN LIFE

- A. Important discoveries and achievements of prehistoric man
 1. The use of fire in cooking food, baking clay, and smelting ores.
 2. The making of language or the use of a given sound to convey a given meaning.
 3. The invention of writing by means of pictures or symbols.
 4. The making of metal implements for weapons and for tilling the soil.
 5. The beginnings of agriculture.
 6. The domestication of animals.
 7. The making of pottery by molding clay into pots and baking them.
 8. The building of mud or reed huts for shelter.
- B. What Egypt gave to civilization
 1. A calendar, with years and months as measures of time.
 2. The doctrine of a future life.
 3. Ideas in sculpture, architecture, mathematics, astronomy, and medicine.
 4. Skill in metal working and other hand trades.
 5. Phonetic writing.
 6. The beginnings of organized government.
 7. Buildings of grandeur and massiveness.
- C. What the Tigris-Euphrates Valley gave to civilization
 1. The division of time into weeks, hours, minutes, and seconds.
 2. Progress in mathematics, astronomy, and some other sciences.
 3. Measures for length, weight, and capacity.
 4. Skill in metal working and other hand trades.
 5. The first code of laws.
- D. What the Phoenicians did for civilization
 1. Taught the Greeks the use of an alphabet, upon which most alphabets of today are based.
 2. Carried on their travels the products of the Near East and brought back to the civilized centers needed raw materials.

- E. The Hebrews' gifts to civilization
 - 1. The idea of the worship of one God (monotheism).
 - 2. The Bible (particularly the Old Testament, but also most of the New).
- F. Lydia's contribution
 - 1. The coinage of money.
- G. Persia's part in civilization
 - 1. The organization of a great empire, held together for a considerable time.

We live in a land where things are new, where days are full and there's much to know;

But the great ideals that lift life high were preached in Palestine long ago.

We farm and we mine, we make and we trade, we write and we play, we weep and we smile;

But far in the past men knew them all, in Babylon, Tyre, and the land of the Nile.

Nations of the Near East, except perhaps the Hebrews, did not develop or appreciate an idea that we think very important today. That is the idea of the worth of the individual. That each person has a right to think for himself, to have his personal interests considered by his fellow citizens and his government, and to have a voice in that government, was a doctrine that had to come later. Workmen went on strikes against cruel bosses; subject peoples revolted against nations that had conquered them; and people rose in rebellion against rulers who were tyrants. But all these things were done by groups or classes. Outside of the leaders who had to direct these movements, individuals did not count for much. Perhaps vague wishes for freedom might have stirred in the hearts of oppressed men and women; but if so, they were seldom expressed. It was among the Greeks that such aspirations first were voiced and partly realized. The Orient stood for absolutism; the Occident pointed the way to democracy.

Is this correct reasoning? "Somebody had to start civilization, and Egypt and Babylonia had the best opportunity for doing so; they don't deserve any particular credit." Do men or nations deserve praise for improvements which benefit others if they are not made with that motive in mind? Do you think the ordinary man or nation today deliberately considers the comfort and well-being of those who are to come after? Should we?

Enter in the proper places the items you can now include in your chart of General Trends in World Progress.

Why do you suppose individual freedom got so little consideration among the people we have just been studying? Is it recognized as important all over the world today?

NAMES AND TERMS WE SHOULD UNDERSTAND

- | | | |
|------------------------|------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. Orient; Occident | 19. Mummy; sarcophagus | 37. Samuel |
| 2. Far East; Near East | 20. Sargon I | 38. Sat' |
| 3. Fertile Crescent | 21. Hammurabi | 39. David |
| 4. "Gift of the Nile" | 22. Sargon II | 40. Solomon |
| 5. Delta | 23. Nebuchadnezzar | 41. Israel |
| 6. Pharaoh | 24. Hanging Gardens | 42. Judah |
| 7. Menes | 25. Cuneiform | 43. "Lost Tribes" |
| 8. Khufu (Cheops) | 26. Rock of Behistun | 44. Bible |
| 9. Rameses II | 27. Cyrus | 45. Monotheism |
| 10. Ikhnaton | 28. Darius | 46. Yahweh; Jehovah |
| 11. Hieroglyphic | 29. Royal Road | 47. Laws of Moses |
| 12. Hieratic | 30. Satrap | 48. Ten Commandments |
| 13. Rosetta Stone | 31. Zoroaster | 49. "The Law"; "The Prophets" |
| 14. Papyrus | 32. Mazda | 50. Tyrian purple |
| 15. Book of the Dead | 33. Abraham | 51. Croesus |
| 16. Pyramids | 34. Moses | 52. Maya |
| 17. Sphinx | 35. Joshua | |
| 18. Obelisk | 36. Canaan | |

DATES WORTH REMEMBERING

(The first four are approximate)

- | | |
|-----------|---|
| 3400 B.C. | Menes first king in Egypt |
| 2900 | Khufu and the Great Pyramid |
| 2100 | Hammurabi and his Code |
| 1250 | Moses and the Ten Commandments |
| 722 | Assyrians carry off the kingdom of Israel |
| 586 | Nebuchadnezzar carries off the kingdom of Judah |
| 536 | Cyrus allows Jews to return to Jerusalem |

INTERESTING SUBJECTS YOU MAY LIKE TO KNOW ABOUT

Early Methods of Irrigation
 The Pyramids and the Sphinx
 Science in Ancient Egypt
 The Origin of the Calendar
 Ancient Methods of Reckoning Time
 Working Men in the Ancient Orient
 Women of the Ancient Orient
 Marriage Customs of the Ancient Orient

The Beginnings of Our Civilization

Food and Dress in the Ancient Orient
 An Interview with a Chaldean Astrologer (imaginary)
 Hammurabi and His Code
 Nebuchadnezzar and His Babylon
 Cyrus the Great
 Zoroaster and His Teachings
 The Commerce of the Phoenicians
 The Leaders of the Hebrews
 The Books of the Old Testament and Their Writers
 Recent Archeological Excavations
 What Was Found in Tutankhamen's Tomb
 The Story of Croesus
 Life in Ancient Crete
 The Development of the Alphabet
 The Beginnings of Weights and Measures
 The Beginnings of Numbers

INTERESTING PROJECTS YOU MAY LIKE TO UNDERTAKE

1. Draw a map of the Near East on which will be clearly located the geographical features, countries, and places mentioned in this unit.

If it can be done without too much overlapping of lines and names, show on this same map by different kinds of lines the greatest extent of the territories of the Near East kingdoms. Perhaps you will find it more satisfactory to make two or three maps, each representing conditions at a different date.

2. Construct a Time and Event Chart like the one on page 74. Continue it through the entire period B.C. Be sure to make it large enough. If you prefer, the dates may run across the top of the chart and the countries may be entered below.

3. Copy this table and fill in the blanks. Do not write in this book.

THE RELIGIONS OF THE ANCIENT ORIENT

FEATURES	EGYPT	ASSYRIA BABYLONIA	PHOENICIA	HEBREWS	PERSIA
Nature of religion . .					
Chief deities					
Sacred book					
Religious leaders . .					

4. Draw a comparative table showing the development of the alphabet among different ancient peoples.

5. Make sketches or models of some of the following: pyramids; an Egyptian temple; an Egyptian book; a Babylonian clay tablet; Solomon's Temple; styles of dress in the ancient Near East; weapons of war used by

ancient Oriental kings; ancient plows, tools, etc.; Egyptian or Phoenician boats; methods of irrigation used in ancient times.

6. Draw a sketch map of the Oriental world showing in the proper locations drawings of notable products, buildings, or other characteristic features of the Ancient Orient.

7. Work up a cartoon or diagram showing how each of the nations of the ancient Near East contributed toward the civilization that was unified under Persia.

8. Arrange an imaginary conversation on religion between an Egyptian and a Hebrew, or between two Hebrews while in captivity in Babylon.

9. Deliver a speech such as a Phoenician might have made urging people to settle in Carthage.

10. When each unit is completed, it will be helpful, if time permits, to use at least one day for an oral review of the unit. Test questions prepared by each pupil may be used as the basis for review work and for a written test on the unit.

11. Arrange a "Who Am I?" contest. Let each member of the class, or selected members, give in not more than one minute a brief statement about some historical character that has been studied during the period under review without mentioning the name of that character. See how many of these characters will be recognized by the members of the class.

PLACES FOR FURTHER READING

Baikie, *The Sea-Kings of Crete*

Banks, *The Seven Wonders of the Ancient World*

Best, *Egypt and Her Neighbors*

Botsford, *A Source Book in Ancient History*, 5-65

Breasted, *Ancient Times*, II-VII

Church, editor, *Stories of the East from Herodotus*

Coffman, *Human Race*, VII-XIII, XVIII, XIX

Davis, *Readings in Ancient History: Greece and the East*, 1-63

Evans, *Scripte Minoa; The Palace of Minos I*

Hosmer, *The Jews*

Kent, *A History of the Hebrew People*

Kummer, *The First Days of History*

Maspero, *Life in Ancient Egypt and Assyria*

Mills, *Book of the Ancient World*

Petrie, *Social Life in Ancient Egypt*

Wells, *Outline of History*, XIV-XX

Bell, *King Tut-Ankh-Amen*

Ebers, *An Egyptian Princess*

Ebers, *Uarda*

Goayne, *The Kiss of Pharaoh*

Henty, *The Cat of Bubastes*

Henty, *For the Temple*

Lamprey, *Long Ago in Egypt*

Miller, *The Yoke*

Potter, *Istar of Babylon*

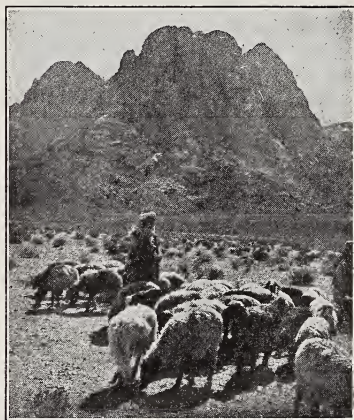
Rolt-Wheeler, *The Pyramid Builder*

Rolt-Wheeler, *The Tamer of Herds*

A TIME AND EVENT CHART

TIME	EGYPT	BABYLONIA AND ASSYRIA	PHOENICIA AND PALESTINE	PERSIA
3500 B.C.				
3000				
2500				
2000				
1500				
1000				
500				

Copy this chart, placing the dates at equal distances apart. Then enter the dates for particular events at suitable intervals with reference to the dates given in the first column. It may be well to add two other columns at the right—one for Greece and one for Rome. (Do not write in this book.)



MT. SINAI

This is a view of the famous mountain around which so many episodes in religious history center.



AN ANCIENT GREEK COIN AND A MODERN GREEK STAMP

The silver coin of Demetrios was made in the third century B.C. On one side it shows the head of Demetrios, and on the other, Poseidon, foot on rock, and leaning on a beaded trident. The modern stamp (center) carries a representation of Hermes.

III. GIFTS OF GREECE TO THE MODERN WORLD

*Climé of the unforgotten brave!
Whose land from plain to mountain-cave
Was Freedom's home or Glory's grave!*

—BYRON

The Greek genius is the European genius in its first and brightest bloom.

—BUTCHER

We do not know any more about the beginnings of the Greek people than we do about the founders of Egypt or Babylon. Our guesses about the early history of the Greeks take us back as far as the period when Egypt was still the strongest power. Our knowledge of them begins about the time when the Assyrians had conquered most of western Asia. While Nebuchadnezzar was reigning in Babylon and Cyrus was founding his Persian empire, Greek cities were gradually building a new kind of civilization. For 200 years after the time of these Oriental monarchs, Greek life and thought blossomed out at their best. What a brilliant list of achievements must be credited to Greeks during those two centuries!

Pointers for Our Study:

How much do we know about the beginnings and characteristics of the ancient Greeks?

How did they save from destruction the civilization which they built up?

How was that civilization carried to other lands and peoples?

In what fields of thought and life are we still under great debt to the ancient Greeks?

Why did they never become a great power politically, and how did they lose their independence?

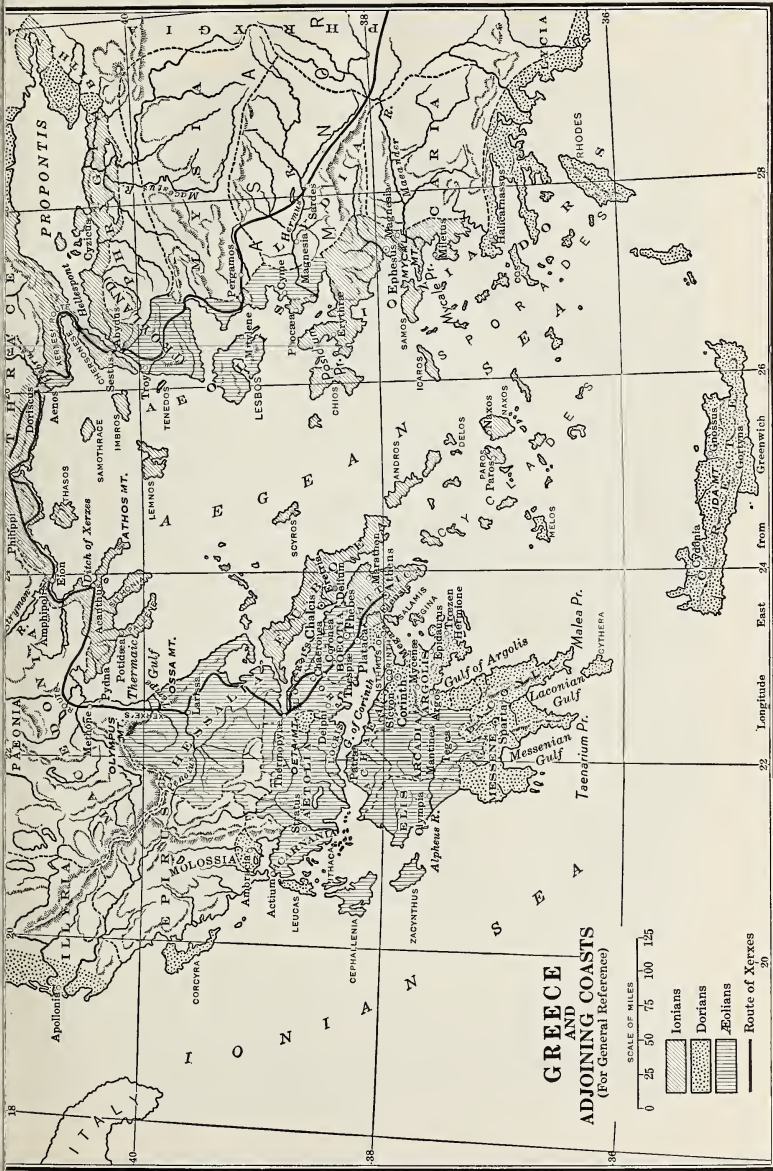
33. The Homes of the Ancient Greeks. — The ancestors of the Greeks of historic times came south from the valley of the Danube, or possibly from the region north of the Black Sea, while the civilization of Crete was at its height (perhaps 1500 B.C.). The Greeks later called themselves Hel'lēnes and their land Hellas. You may see that name on Greek postage stamps today. The invaders did not all come at once, but in "waves," sometimes 200 years or more apart. There were four divisions of them — Achae'ans, Aeolians (ēō'lians), Iō'nians, and Dō'rians. Sometimes the natives already living in Greece were wiped out. Sometimes the newcomers may have settled peacefully among them. In any case the civilization already there passed out of existence.

About 1100 B.C. a big shake-up occurred, resulting from what is often called the "Dorian migration." A "wave" of these Dorians came into the Pēloponnē'sus, the southern peninsula of Greece. They drove out some of the people already living there, many of whom fled across the sea to Asia Minor. In that part of Asia Minor occupied by Ionian Greeks notable cities grew up, most famous of which were Milē'tus and Ephesus (ēf'esus). Ionian Greeks who remained in Greece founded the city of Ath'ens which has often represented in our minds the whole of Greece, just as we sometimes think of Paris as France, or Rome as Italy. But our thought of the home of the ancient Greeks should include all the land east and west of the Aegean (ējē'an) Sea, and the islands in the sea, and not merely Greece itself.

From the time-chart at the top of page 7, observe how the story that this unit tells is related to the story told by other units. The artist has inscribed the name of the great poet Homer in Greek above the lyre and the names in Greek of the *Odyssey* and the *Iliad*, the famous Homeric poems. He has indicated another contribution of Greece in his little sketch of a temple, which is the famous Par'thenon (§46). Note also the entries relating to Greeks in the time-graphs on pages 39, 49, 50, 51.

Why do you suppose the Hellenes came south from their original homes? Why did invading peoples often overthrow a higher civilization than they themselves possessed?

Be sure you can locate the following: Aegean Sea, Hel'lespont, Macedō'nia, Thrace, Thes'saly, Epī'rus, Euboea (ūbē'a), Athens, Gulf of Corinth, Peloponnesus, Crete, Rhodes, Ionia, Miletus, Ephesus.



GREECE AND ADJOINING COASTS (For General Reference)

SCALE OF MILES
0 25 50 75 100 125

- Ionians
- Dorians
- Aeolians
- Route of Xerxes

34. What Their Surroundings Did for the Greek People. — As countries go, Greece is a little country. Its whole area is about half that of Pennsylvania. The coast line bends into dozens of bays and gulfs of all sizes. Many of the inhabitants of such a country naturally became seafaring people, though before the Greeks moved into their southern homes, they had been hunters and farmers. The great river valleys of Egypt and Mesopotamia made it easy for separate communities to unite and form one kingdom. Not so in Greece, cut by mountains and bays into many distinct sections. There each section became a little state by itself. Not until the nineteenth century did Greece appear on the map as a united country. Its failure to do so earlier may be one of the tragedies of history.

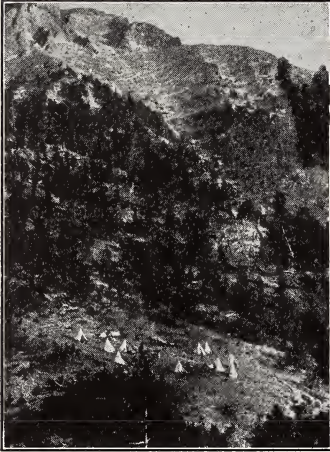
In such a situation large farms were out of the question; yet most of the food crops of warm climates could be raised — grains, olives, grapes, and figs, for example. The climate of Greece is mild. Today a tourist thinks it is hot in summer, and the country has been in peace times a sort of winter playground for those who do not enjoy the cold winds of northern lands.

The views of mountain and sea in Greece are beautiful. The air is clear. In such surroundings a people could scarcely help developing a love of beauty and a genius for art. In this respect no people ever surpassed the Greeks at their best. The climate also led to an outdoor life and an interest in athletics. For the same reason Californians today carry off more than their share of prizes in tennis and other sports in their own and other countries.

Be sure you are familiar with the important geographical districts and towns in Greece. Note especially the following, in addition to those previously mentioned: At'tica, Boeotia (bēō'shia), Thebes, Delphi, Mt. Olȳm'pus, Cōr'inth, Iacō'nia, Sparta, Olympia, Argos, Arcā'dia. In what respects would you think Greece to be like and unlike England? Draw a map of your own state and then place over it an outline of Greece drawn to the same scale.

35. Qualities of the Greek People. — You could have found among the people of ancient Greece every trait and quality that human beings ever possessed. The Greeks were a very adaptable people. They could adjust themselves to their surroundings and learn from others, but they had strong ideas of their own, too.

Except for such groups as the Spartans, the Greeks were a many-sided people. They took an interest in business, in commerce, in art, in government, in philosophy, and in religion. They were a free-minded people, and did not feel bound by tradition, habit, or by the command of a monarch to do things as they always had been done. Human life had never been broader or richer than in Athens during the period when Athens was the leader of Greece.



WHERE THE GREEKS THOUGHT THEIR GODS
LIVED

Mt. Olympus, the highest mountain in the Balkan peninsula, is now visited by tourists, though to climb to the top is still dangerous. Shepherds' camps appear in this picture. Can you imagine gods living on this mountain?

gods on Mount Olym'pus. No Greek ever saw a god there, but one who had never been there found no difficulty in believing that that mountain was the home of the gods.

Greeks were changeable and fickle. They were sometimes too ready to accept a proposition that had little or no merit. They could be easily led by smooth talkers and were very ready to give vent to sympathy, to revenge, or to discontent. A hero one day was a villain the next.

Are there any people today who seem to you to possess the qualities displayed by the ancient Greeks? Do you see anything in this list of

Greeks were an imaginative people. You may have wondered how anybody ever could think up all their myths and legends; yet to the average Greek they were very real. Take the story of Jā'son and the Golden Fleece. No doubt fighting occurred when different people went to look for gold in the same place; but it would take a Greek to invent the story that the gold was guarded by a dragon and that the sowing of the dragon's teeth caused armed men to spring up. Greeks even placed the habitation of their

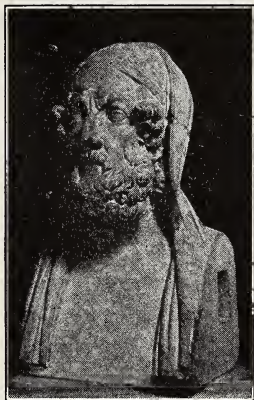
qualities which might help to explain why tribes and cities among the Greeks did not get along better with one another?

36. Homer's Poems and Early Greek Life. — Greek life from around 1200 to 800 B.C. is pictured in the two poems often considered the greatest epics ever composed — the *Il'iad* and the *Odyssey* (ōd'issy). The Greeks believed that they were composed by a blind poet named Homer, who went from place to place reciting or singing them. Many modern scholars think that if there was a Homer, he put together several different early poems instead of inventing the whole story himself. (Time-graphs, pp. 39, 49.) Later Greek boys learned these poems by heart, and modern cultured people also need to be familiar with them. (Picture, facing p. 83.)

“Seven wealthy towns contend for Homer
dead,
Through which the living Homer begged
his bread.”

The poems tell about the latter part of the war between the Greeks and the people of Troy in Asia Minor (about 1194–1184 B.C.) and of the experience of Odysseus (ōdīs'sūs) (Ulŷs'ses to you, probably) on his return home after Troy had been captured.¹

As described in these poems, the Greeks of that day were still living a plain and humble life. They were farmers, fishermen, or traders on the sea. Although they made their own weapons and armor for war, there were few skilled tradesmen among them.



HOMER

Thus an ancient sculptor imagined Homer to have looked. This bust is now in the Capitoline Museum at Rome.

¹ There was a time when scholars were inclined to assume that there never was any such place as Troy. But a German named Heinrich Schliemann (hin'rich shlē'man), who as a boy could not make himself believe that the story of the Trojan War was all imagination, determined to find out the truth. After some years of preparation, he went to Asia Minor and began to dig in a hill which he believed was the site of ancient Troy. There he found the remains not of one Troy but of nine cities. One of these corresponded closely enough to descriptions in the *Iliad* to convince most scholars that it was the one to which the poem relates.

Princes worked in the fields and princesses washed their clothes in the stream side by side with people of lower rank.

If you have read the story of the Trojan War, recall the principal characters in it. If not, find out what part in the story was played by such characters as Agamem'non, Achil'lēs, Ajax, Ulysses, Pri'am, Hector, and Helen.

37. Religion and Myths among the Greeks. — In the book of Acts Paul is quoted as saying to the Athēn'ians, "I see that in all things you are very religious," or, as otherwise translated, "too superstitious." Put these two ideas together, and you have a fair notion of Greek religion. Greeks had many gods. They personified the forces of Nature. They made a living person out of the sun, for instance, and he became Apol'lo, the god of Light. The growing of crops, the rippling of streams, the rustling of the leaves on trees, might all be the work of divinities.



ZEUS

King of gods and men as an ancient artist made him look.

The Greeks put human weaknesses and vices as well as good qualities into their gods. These gods could be jealous, deceitful, and cruel. Zeus (zūs) and his queen, Hē'ra, could quarrel with one another as violently as any human husband and wife. The gods were immortal and possessed great power, but otherwise they were much like real people. Yet the feeling

prevailed that the gods wanted men to do right, though the Greeks never drew up creeds which people were *told* to accept.

Almost any activity in life might have a religious aspect. A prayer might be offered at the beginning of a meal to invoke the presence of the patron god of a home. The finest buildings were temples honoring some divinity. Famous games were held in honor of Zeus, "the father of gods and men." If a colony was going out to settle in a new land, the protection of a divinity was invoked.

Every community might have its own protecting divinity, but among the numberless deities, great and small, twelve were thought to form the Olympian Council, which met on the top of Mount Olympus. Since the chief divinities of the Greeks and the Romans were much alike, the Roman name is added in parentheses after the Greek name :

Zeus (Jū'piter) was the king of gods and men. He presided over the whole system of Greek religion.

Poseidon (pōsī'don) (Neptune) was the ruler of the sea. He wore a glittering crown, and carried in his hand a three-pronged scepter, or trident.

Apollo was the sun god, the god of light, music, beauty, and prophecy. He drove a fiery chariot across the sky every day. At night it went down under the earth, and in the morning was ready to start again.

Hephaestus (hěfěst'us) (Vulcan) was the god of fire. He was the forger of Zeus' thunderbolts. Hephaestus once got into some trouble and was thrown out of Olympus. Ever after he was a cripple.

Her'mēs (Mercury) was the swift-footed god of commerce and invention, represented with wings on his heels and cap. He was messenger of the gods.

Ares (ā'rēz) (Mars) was the god of war. The Romans made more of him than the Greeks did.

He'ra (Juno) was the proud and beautiful queen, wife of Zeus, and possessor of all the attributes of women.

Athē'na (Miner'va) was the goddess of wisdom, a very popular deity with the Greeks. She was the particular patron of the city of Athens.

Aphrodī'te (Vē'nus) was the goddess of beauty and love.

Ar'temis (Diā'na) was the goddess of the hunt. The moon was sacred to her.

Demē'ter (Cē'rēs) was the earth mother. She was the goddess of sowing and reaping and of the tilling of the soil. She kept the soil fertile.

Hestia (Vesta) was the goddess of the hearth and home.

How many of these deities represent some phase of Nature? Would you call the Greeks nature-worshippers?

The Greeks believed in a future life, but for most of them it was nothing much to look forward to. The souls of the general run



ATHENA

The patron goddess of Greece's most famous city.

of people, who were neither notable nor bad, went to the underworld ruled over by a king called Hā'dēs (Plū'to), and often called by his name. Its entrance was guarded by the three-headed dog, Cer'berus. Here the spirits of the dead passed an aimless, uncomfortable kind of existence. For special heroes there was a happier location known as the Elÿs'ian Fields. And for the wicked there was a dark place down below Hades known as Tar'tarus.

The Greeks often tried to learn the will of the gods through oracles. Two particularly important ones were those of Apollo at Delphi and of Zeus at Dodō'na. At Delphi a vapor which came up through an opening in the earth was thought to be the breath of Apollo. A priestess allowed herself to be overcome by the vapor; then the words she uttered were taken down by priests, who in turn told inquirers the meaning of them. Many people visited the oracle at Delphi, and from them the priests could get valuable information to use in giving answers to inquirers. Since those who consulted the oracle usually brought expensive gifts, the priests obtained a good deal of wealth. Priests often worded their answers so that whatever happened they could not be said to have been wrong, as in the case of Croesus of Lydia (§ 29). The Greeks, however, set much store by the replies from these oracles, and Greek cities formed leagues to protect them from enemies.

Why do you suppose people as intelligent as the Greeks were in many respects would accept these oracles as divine? Are astrologers and fortune-tellers any different from priests of the ancient oracles? Do we make any use today of the names of the Greek divinities? What is the meaning of such expressions as, "food for the gods," "a Delphic utterance," "speaking oracularly"? Was the Greek religion of a kind to encourage people to live upright lives?

38. Bonds of Union among the Greeks. — Many things kept the Greeks apart. Mountains and islands were responsible for many distinct neighborhoods. The cities were jealous of each other, afraid that one might get too much power at the expense of the rest. On the other hand, numerous influences kept the Greeks together in sentiment and sometimes in action.

1. They believed that they were all descended from a common ancestor, whom they called Hellen. All who were not Greeks



A READING FROM HOMER.

were "barbarians" — that is, people who said "bar bar" when they spoke. When the great games were held, and on other notable occasions, any one who was a Greek was welcome.

2. A common language helped toward understanding. Not every Greek pronounced every word just the same as every other Greek did, but neither do Englishmen and Americans, or even all Americans. Any Greek, however, could be understood by other Greeks. The poems of Homer were known by every educated Greek.

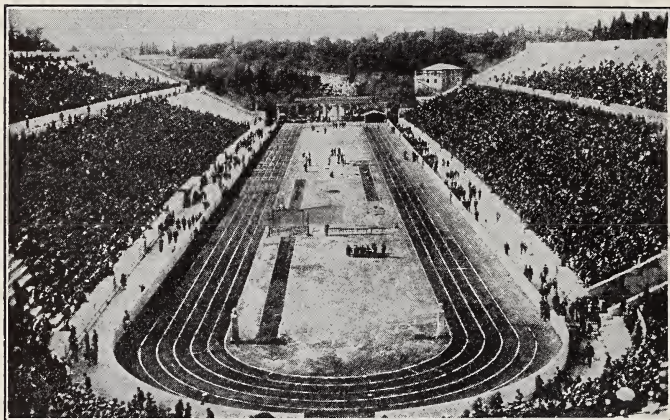
3. The Greek religion was another bond of union. All Greeks recognized the twelve members of the "Olympian Council," as well as numerous lesser divinities; and Greeks from anywhere might come to seek advice from the oracles.

4. Some of the Greek cities organized in leagues, or *amphic'tyonies*, to protect the oracles or other religious shrines. The towns which belonged to these amphictyonies pledged themselves not only to protect the oracle but to protect the rights of the other cities that belonged to the league.

5. One of the greatest of all unifying factors was the Olympic Games. Every four years the Greeks held these games at Olympia, in honor of Zeus. Any Greek of pure blood and of good character might take part. At first the games consisted merely of races, but later other contests were added, notable among which was the *pentath'lon*, or "contest of five parts" — long jump, discus throwing, javelin throwing, wrestling, and running. The only prizes were wreaths of olive or laurel, but proud was the young man who received one of these. For the next few years he was the hero of his home town, and perhaps became the model for some sculptor or had a poem written about him.

Traders from all parts of Greece brought their goods to Olympia during the games. Poets and sculptors displayed their work and gained inspiration for more. Treaties between different cities were proclaimed here by heralds, on the theory that this was the best way to make them known. While the games were going on, whatever quarrels cities might be engaged in were set aside for one month, so that everybody could have a free and safe journey to and from Olympia. As we have already learned, the Greeks even came to count time by the Olympic Games, believing

that the first "meet" was held in what would correspond to 776 B.C. according to our reckoning. The period from one game to another was an Olȳm'piad, and Greeks might say that a thing happened, for instance, in the third year of the thirty-sixth



THE STADIUM AT ATHENS

This is obviously a modern picture showing the people collected for the modern Olympics. The general construction of the stadium, however, is very similar to that of ancient times.

Olympiad. Other games at Corinth and elsewhere also received special recognition among the Greeks and helped to create a common interest.

Do the "Olympic Games" of today create a friendly sentiment among the participants? In what ways, if any, do they differ from those held by the ancient Greeks? Are there any bonds of union among the people of the United States, outside of the Constitution and the national government, similar to these bonds of union among the ancient Greeks?

39. Government and Politics in Ancient Greece. — A Greek's patriotism centered in his city rather than in the country as a whole. A person who lived in another city was an alien. Each city not only governed itself and made treaties with other cities, but quite largely supported itself, except as the coast cities were in a position to carry on trade with the outside world. (For the

time relation of some of the early Greek cities, see the graphs on pages 59, 50, and 51.)

The typical form of government in ancient Greece was what we call the *city-state*. It included not only a city but the surrounding country, where grain, cattle, sheep, and other farm crops were grown to feed the people who lived within the city walls — most



THE ACROPOLIS AT ATHENS

Ewing Galloway

This is a striking view of the Acropolis as it has looked in recent days. You distinguish very clearly the steps going up to the entrance, the Propylea, the small temples on each side of the entrance, and the Parthenon. Some very modern structures appear in the foreground.

cities were walled for protection. Athens, Sparta, Thebes, Corinth, Argos, and Delphi were among the most famous of the city-states of Greece.

A city usually centered around a hill known as the *acrōp'olis*, which meant "high city." Here the people could go for protection in case an enemy invaded their country. Another center of the city was the *ag'ora*, or market place, where men met for business and social purposes.

In the early stages of Greek history, most of the cities had kings, but they were not so powerful as were the Oriental monarchs. Sometimes the fighting men might assemble to listen to a proposal offered by the king, and if they approved it, would give their

consent by some sort of applause. Monarchies, however, became unpopular as time went on.

The first change when a monarchy was overthrown was usually to substitute the rule of nobles for that of a king. Thus the government came to be an *aristocracy*, "the authority of the best" (which meant the upper classes), or an *oligarchy*, "the rule of a few." Some cities seemed to get along reasonably well as aristocracies, but others became dissatisfied, for it is the habit of aristocrats to be selfish.

In a number of cases aristocracies were overthrown by a movement started by some one man. If he could talk well in public, or had some other hold on the people, he might make himself their ruler. The Greeks called one who gained power by illegal means a *tyrant*. Some tyrants ruled well and were popular, and others were tyrants in the modern sense of the word.

When a tyrant was overthrown, a city might go back to an aristocracy again, or it might move forward to a democracy. The latter is what happened in Athens and some other cities. *Democracy*, of course, means the rule of the people. Athenians did not mean everybody when they said "the people," for they included simply all free, grown-up men; but that was indeed something!

Do you know of any modern countries which have gone through such changes in government as we have just described? Are there any modern countries that in any way correspond to the city-states of ancient Greece?

40. Sparta, One Example of Greek Life. — Sparta was one of the few Greek cities that did not have a wall around it. It was in Lacō'nia, or Lacedæmon (lāsēdē'mon), near the center of the Peloponnesus. Spartans took pleasure in declaring that the bodies of their citizens were the only wall they needed.

Spartans said that a law-giver named Lycur'gus drew up a frame of government for the city, made his people promise to observe it, and then left the city to see how the plan would work out. Maybe there was a Lycurgus, but there is nothing except tradition to make us believe he did all the things with which he was credited. Sparta had two kings instead of one; but the real power was in the hands of five men called *ēph'ors*, who were chosen by the Spartan citizens

each year. Only Spartans over thirty years old could have a vote in their assembly.

In the Spartan city-state there were three classes of people. The *Spartans*, who were the rulers of the whole state, included about 9000 to 10,000 fighting men. Two or three times as many people, known as *perioeci* (pěriē'si) ("those who dwelt around"), carried on the business of the community, though they had no share in the government. The Spartans considered trade beneath them. They said that Lycurgus provided that the money of the Spartans should be made of iron, so that people would not want to carry it around much. The third and most numerous class were the *hēl'ots*. They were slaves and had no rights whatever, but were slaves of the government and not of individual citizens. The government might assign from one to seven helots to serve a single citizen. Their wretched sufferings sometimes caused them to rise in rebellion. To reduce the chances of such occurrences, the Spartans had the habit of cruelly killing off any helots who showed signs of becoming leaders among their group.

A Spartan had no private life that amounted to much. He was a soldier first of all, and his duty to the state came ahead of everything else. If a baby did not seem likely to be strong when he grew up, he was thrown out on a mountain to die. When a boy was seven years old, he was taken away from his parents and made to live in a military camp. To make him hardy and able to endure suffering and pain unflinchingly, he was given all sorts of rough treatment. All Spartan men ate at public tables instead of at



A GREEK WARRIOR

This cut shows the equipment of a heavy armed fighting man of ancient Greece. You can distinguish the different articles which he wore to protect himself and the dart which he used as an offensive weapon.

home, and were not provided with any luxuries. A visitor from Athens who participated in one of these public meals said that he could understand why the Spartans were brave in battle, because it was better to be dead than to live on such food. Girls, also, were given considerable physical training. Girls and women were allowed to appear in public in Sparta more than in other Greek cities.

The ruling Spartan class was narrow-minded and preferred to remain ignorant of the art, literature, and philosophy in which Athenians, for example, delighted. Spartans were people of few words. From the name Laconia we get our adjective "laconic."

Spartan boys were given so little food that they were expected to steal any more that they needed, but were punished severely if they were caught at stealing. What do you think of the moral effect of that kind of training? Are there any expressions more or less famous in the history of the United States or of other countries which could be characterized as laconic? Why do you suppose girls and women were, in general, given so little part in social or public life among people of ancient times?

41. Athens, Another Type of Greek Life. — No city-state of ancient Greece was large. Athens, the largest of all, probably had at its best no more than 300,000 people in the city and in the surrounding districts of Attica. Just before World War II Athens and its port, Piraeus (pīrē'us), had about 800,000. Just as Sparta was the extreme example of an aristocracy in which the citizens were forced to live for the state, so Athens represented those cities which went the farthest of all in ancient times toward making their government rest on the will of all free people.

At one time Athens had kings, but got rid of them and established an aristocracy headed by nine men called *ar'chons*. In 594 B.C. a wise and capable man named Sō'lōn was entrusted by the government with complete authority to revise the laws of the state, which had been put in writing for the first time about thirty years before by a noble named Drā'co. Solon made very extensive changes. Harsh laws about debtors under which they might be forced into slavery were abolished. The poorer people were given the right to vote in electing public officers, though they were not yet allowed to become officers themselves. (Refer to the time-graph on page 54.)

Most of Solon's reforms were in the right direction, but the Athenians were still discontented. So a distant relative of Solon, Pisís'trátus, declared himself to be the friend of the people and succeeded in getting himself into power in the city. He was one of the famous "tyrants" among the ancient Greek cities. In many respects the city progressed under his rule. His two sons undertook to carry on the government after his death, but one of them was murdered in a quarrel, and the other soon afterward was driven out.

The next reform was under the leadership of Clis'thēnēs (508 B.C.). He reorganized the whole country, and gave voting rights to many people who had not enjoyed them before. A sort of council of 500 was elected by lot. All the important affairs of the government were discussed in meetings of the public assembly, and for trying legal cases large numbers of men of this assembly were chosen by lot for judges or jurymen. Ten officials known as *strā'tēgī*, or "generals," soon became the chief officers of the government. The laws of Clisthenes carried Athens well on the road to democracy.

Clisthenes introduced one interesting, but dangerous, feature of government. This was known as *ostracism*, from the Greek, *ὄστρακον* (*ostrakon*), which referred to the shell or piece of pottery used in voting. At an election voters were allowed to express their opinion as to whether a particular person was dangerous to the state. If a certain number of votes were cast against him, he had to leave the city for ten years. Ostracism came to be used simply as a means of freeing a city from a politician who had lost favor. You can see, however, that it might be used in a very unfair way.

Why is it better to have even harsh laws written or printed than to have no laws published at all? How do we use the word "solon" in public affairs today? How do we use the word "ostracism" today? Would you ever favor a provision that all debts should be cancelled? If so, when and why?

42. How Greece Spread to Other Regions. — During the period from about 750 to 550 B.C. many colonies went out from Greek cities into new lands. Since Greece is hilly and not suited to producing large food crops or raw materials for industry or main-

taining many large cities, many Greeks went out to other regions as traders, and founded trading posts which developed into colonies. The desire for adventure and seeing new lands helped to cause the sending out of others. Still another reason was dissatisfaction with the government at home. Aristocratic cities, in particular, sent out many colonists who, like the Pilgrims who left the mother country and came to New England, wanted to be free to do as they thought right, though they lost none of their patriotism for the land of their birth. When ancient Greeks moved from their home city to some other place, they carried with them fire from the public altar of the home town; they retained their relationship in language and blood to the home city. If that city had a special protecting god or goddess, the colony kept the same one. It became an independent community, however, in government. (Refer again to the time-graphs on pages 49 and 50.)

Miletus in Asia Minor was the most noted of all the mothers of colonies. She was said to have sent out at least sixty colonies. One of the earliest and most important of the Greek colonies was Byzān'tium, situated near the entrance to the Black Sea, where Constantinō'ple, or Istanbul', is today. From the Black Sea region the Greeks could get wheat and gold and slaves.

Greeks divided the control of Sicily with the Phoenician colony of Carthage. So many Greeks came to live in Sicily and southern Italy that the region became known as Magna Graecia, or "Great Greece." Farther away, the colony of Massil'ia was founded, which today is Marseille (marsé'ī), the chief port of France on the Mediterranean. In northern Africa Greeks founded a famous colony at Cȳrē'nē and another at Nau'cratis in the delta of the Nile.

Thus to many parts of the Mediterranean world were carried the interests and culture of the cities of Greece. "Wherever there were Hellenes, there was Hellas" — and the Greeks themselves were benefited by their contacts with other people.

On the map on the following page locate important Greek colonies.

Do you think the same spirit of adventure exists today which caused the ancient Greeks to plant colonies? What points of likeness or difference do you see between the Greek colonies of ancient times and the European colonies of the New World in the 17th and in the 18th centuries?

43. The Menace of Persia. — Now we come to the story of one of the most renowned events in all history. Some conflict was sure to take place between the brighter, more progressive Greeks of Asia Minor and Europe and the Persians, still spreading westward, though Persia had reached its “peak” and had begun to decline. It was the first of several struggles between Oriental and European civilization — stagnation *vs.* progress, absolutism *vs.* the hope of democracy. What if they had turned out differently!

The Ionian Greeks on the east side of the Aegean Sea did not get along well with the Persians after the overthrow of King Croesus of Lydia. After a time the Ionian cities rose against the Persians. Athens, sympathizing with her fellow Ionians, sent over a number of ships and men. The Persians put down the rebellion, but the Greeks burned several towns, including Sardis. Learning that the Athenians had helped to burn Sardis, King Darius was determined to have vengeance upon them. He even hired a special servant to say to him three times a day, “Master, remember the Athenians!”

Were the Athenians themselves responsible for bringing down the hatred of the Persian king, or were they justified in helping to fight him? On the map following page 76 trace the various Persian invasions as you come to them.

Darius' first attempt to conquer the Greeks took the form of an expedition, sent out under his son-in-law, Mardō'nus, in 492 B.C. It included a fleet and an army which was to follow along the western and northern coasts of the Aegean Sea. But in a storm off the promontory of Mt. Ath'os the fleet of Mardonius was wrecked, and what was left of the expedition went back home. Darius was no quitter, however, and he immediately planned for another expedition against the hated Greeks.

44. How the Greeks Saved Western Civilization. — In 490 B.C. Darius' second expedition, led by Dā'tis and Artapher'nes, struck straight across the Aegean Sea and headed toward the island of Euboea and Attica. The Spartans had promised help to Athens in resisting this attack, but delayed sending it. The Athenians decided that they could not wait, but must strike hard if they were to save themselves. The Persian soldiers had landed on the plain of Mar'athon, 26 miles across the country from Athens. The

Darius I (Persia) (521)–485	Herodotus Aeschylus, Sophocles, Euripides, Aristophanes Phidias		Thucydides
Marathon 490	Salamis 480	Socrates Plato	
		Age of Pericles	
		461	429
		Delian League	Peloponnesian War
			431
Tribunes estab- lished in Rome 494?	Twelve Tables (Rome) 451?		404
500 B.C.	5TH CENTURY B.C.		401

Athenian leader, Milti'ades, had only about half as many men, but he hurled his troops upon the Persians and completely routed them.

After the battle, a messenger was sent to Athens to carry the news of the victory. He ran the 26 miles, gasped "Victory is ours," and fell dead. How is this incident commemorated in modern athletics?

Darius, still determined to punish the Greeks, began plans for another attack. After his death his son Xerxes took up the project. The Persians assembled an army of over a million men, the Greeks said; probably it was much smaller than that, but certainly bigger than any force the Greeks were likely to get together. An enormous fleet was also collected. The Persians cut a canal so that their ships could go in the rear rather than in front of Mt. Athos. The army and fleet moved in parallel courses around the Aegean Sea and then south toward Greece itself.

There had been considerable argument among Athenians as to the best policy of defense. One of their leaders, Aristi'dēs, felt that they should try to defend themselves, with the help of the other states, on land. His rival, Themis'toclēs, said that Athens' best defense was the navy. He declared that Persia would have to be met on the sea anyway, or she would always be able to bring armies to invade Greece. He succeeded in getting an oracle to say that, when everything else had gone wrong, Athens would be protected by her "wooden walls," which Themistocles declared meant her ships. The Athenians accepted his arguments and ostracized Aristides.

Aristides was a man of irreproachable honor and had the nickname of "the just." It is said that an Athenian, voting on the proposed ostra-

cism, asked Aristides to write his own name on one of the shells used as ballots. When Aristides asked what the voter had against him, he was told, "I am tired of hearing him called the just." Do people ever vote for similar silly reasons today?

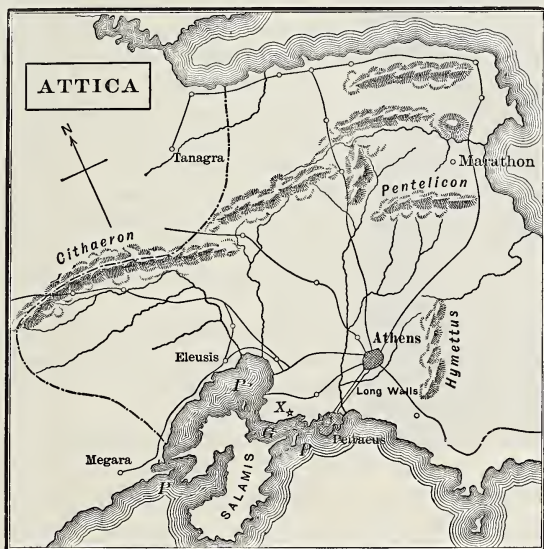
The leading cities were so jealous of one another that no plan of united defense could be made. Nothing stood in the way of the Persians until they approached the narrow pass of Thermōp'ylae in Thessaly, which was held by Leōn'idās, one of the kings of Sparta, with a small force of men (480 B.C.). The Spartans for some foolish reason kept most of their troops at home. Athens was now devoting herself entirely to her own defense.

The Persians tried to break through the pass at Thermopylae, but Leonidas and his men could not be dislodged. Finally some one, said to be a traitor Greek, showed the Persians a way through the mountains around the pass. When Leonidas discovered that now he could not possibly hold out, he allowed most of the Greeks who were with him to go home, but he, with 300 Spartans, 400 Thebans, and 700 Thespians, stayed and fought until every man was killed. Later a memorial was set up on the field of Thermopylae bearing this inscription: "Stranger, go tell the Spartans that we lie here in obedience to their orders."

Now nothing could stop the Persian advance through central Greece. The cities of the Peloponnesus took their soldiers south of the Isthmus of Corinth and built fortifications across it. A Greek fleet which had been holding back the Persians retreated and took a position near the island of Sal'amis.

But what was to happen to the Athenians? Themistocles induced the people to trust their "wooden walls," which carried the women and children over to the island of Salamis. Persians came into Athens and burned the city to the ground. Themistocles figured that the Greek fleet would have a better chance if he could get the Persians to fight where their numbers would not mean so much. So he found a way to give King Xerxes the impression that the Greeks were pretty nearly scared to death, and that if the Persians would block them in the harbor of Salamis, the rest would be easy. Xerxes was fooled. When the Persians sent their big fleet through the narrow passageway into the bay, they were attacked furiously by the Greeks, and the Persian

ships got in one another's way. Instead of destroying the Greeks, the Persian fleet itself was smashed. Xerxes, who watched the fight from a throne set on a neighboring hill, was thoroughly disgusted and hurried back to Asia, leaving an army under Mardonius in Greece.



G, Greek fleet at Salamis; PPP, Persian fleet; X, Throne of Xerxes.

The 'Long Walls' on this map were not built until after the Battle of Salamis.

This battle of Salamis in 480 B.C. revived the spirit of the Greeks, and now they got together a good-sized army under the lead of the Spartan Pausānias. The next year (479 B.C.) they fought the Persians at Platae'a and badly defeated them. The same year — the same day, so the Greeks said — the sailors of the Greek fleet, which had been cruising in the Aegean Sea, landed at Myc'ale, on the coast of Asia Minor, and won another glorious victory over the Persians.

During this same time the Greeks over in Sicily had also been fighting for their lives against the Carthaginians. Gē'lon, the

“tyrant” of the city of Syr’acuse, led the defense against the Carthaginians, and in 480 B.C. defeated them in battle at Him’era, on the northern coast of the island.

Why does the story of these Greek victories mean anything more than names and dates? For at least three reasons: (1) The Greeks were just developing new ideas in government, art, literature, and philosophy. If the Persians had won, this development would have stopped. The victory of the Greeks gave Greek artists, poets, dramatists, and historians the inspiration to produce some of the finest things in the whole history of human culture. (2) Persian conquest was checked and the independent life of the Greek cities was saved for a century and a half. Since Athens could experiment with a democratic government only if it was independent, we might almost say that the Greeks fought “to make the world safe for democracy.” (3) Since Athens had been foremost in the Greek defense, it took a place of leadership among the Greek cities for half a century.

In Sir Edwin Creasy’s book, *The Fifteen Decisive Battles of the World*, he included Marathon. Do you agree with him? Should Leonidas be praised or blamed for staying and having his men killed after discovering that he could not hold Thermopylae?

45. The Leadership of Athens and Its Mistakes. — Greece was saved — at least from Persia — but could she save herself from her own jealousies and rivalries? The next century’s answer unfortunately was “No.”

Athens was at the height of her glory during the years that followed the defeat of the Persians. Under the leadership of Themistocles the Athenians rebuilt their city and fortified with a wall not only the city but its port, Piraeus, which was connected with Athens by the “Long Walls.” After a while Themistocles was accused of some misconduct and in his turn was ostracized.

Some of the Greek cities, notably Sparta, objected when Athens fortified herself. What do you suppose were their motives? Do you think Athens had a right to build fortifications?

A new league known as the Confederacy of Dē’los was now organized. It sought to protect the independence of Greek lands lately set free from the Persians and also to offset the influence of the Peloponnesian League which Sparta headed.

Athens was the leader of it, and her statesman, Aristides, was its first president. Each member was to contribute ships or money in proportion to its ability, to maintain a fleet for the protection of the members of the league. The treasury of the league was located at the shrine of Apollo in Delos.

Now Athens threw away her chance to keep both the leadership and friendship of her allies. She became a tyrant rather than a leader. Since many of the states in the league preferred to give money rather than build ships, Athens had an opportunity to "feather her own nest" at the expense of the other members. The treasury was moved from Delos to Athens. When some of the members tried to withdraw from the league, they were treated as rebels and punished severely. Athens did, however, protect from outside enemies those of her new subjects who remained in the league.

When other members of the Delian League objected to the use of their contributions for beautifying the city of Athens, it was replied that Athens was giving them protection and that what Athens did with their money was none of their business. What do you think of that argument?



PERICLES

The first line of the inscription on the bust is the name Pericles in Greek. The second line is the name of his father, Xanthippos (only here the name is in the genitive case and ends in ou). The third line, Athenaios, you might guess to mean Athenian.

46. Ancient Athens at Its Highest. — The "Golden Age" of Athens, the thirty years from 461 to 431 B.C., is also called the "Age of Per'iclēs," for during most of that time he was the moving spirit in everything important that happened in Athens. In some respects he corresponded to a political boss of today. Part of the time he held no important office himself; yet he determined who should hold the leading positions, and the people's assembly followed his wishes almost without question for many years.

Pericles spent money lavishly to beautify Athens. On the western slope of the Acropolis was built the entrance called the Propyle'a, with its sixty steps leading to the top. An enormous statue of Athena stood just back of the Propylea, its gleaming spear point visible to sailors several miles out. On top of the Acropolis was built the Par'thenon, the Temple of Athena, the



THE PARTHENON AS IT LOOKS TODAY

Publishers' Photo

Here is a nearer view of it than on page 85. This was taken from the opposite or north side. Some of the damage done to the temple in past years has been repaired. The people whom you see in the picture will help you to get an idea of the size of the temple itself.

"virgin goddess," declared to be the most perfect example of architecture ever constructed. Within it was another statue of Athena made by the artist Phid'ias, this one of gold and ivory. Artists and dramatists flourished as never before or since in any one city at any one time.

Where did Pericles get the money to do all this? Partly from taxes on foreign merchants living in Attica and duties collected from ships coming to Piraeus, partly from the money paid into the treasury of the Delian League by other cities, and partly from the silver obtained from mines in Thrace which the city owned. Out of the public treasury both day laborers and expert artists

received pay for their work. No city today would be likely to have any such opportunities to beautify itself at little cost to itself.

Pericles himself boasted in this way of the Athens which he did so much to adorn: "We are lovers of the beautiful, yet simple in our tastes; and we cultivate the mind without loss of manliness. Wealth we employ, not for talk and ostentation, but when there is a real use for it. To avow poverty with us is no disgrace; the true disgrace is in doing nothing to avoid it. An Athenian citizen does not neglect the state, because he takes care of his own household. . . . There are mighty monuments of our power which will make us the wonder of this and of succeeding ages. . . . For we have compelled every land and every sea to open a path for our valor, and have everywhere planted eternal memorials of our friendship and of our enmity. . . . Athens is the school of Hellas."

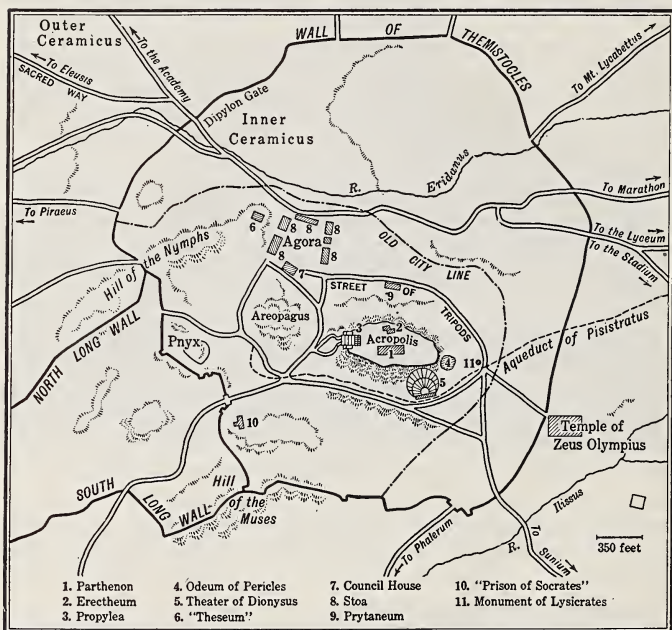
Do you think it would be a good policy for a modern government to pay artists and writers out of the public treasury as a means of encouraging contributions on their part? What everyday conveniences do we enjoy which ancient Athens with all its brilliancy had to get along without?

47. Public Life and Industry in Ancient Athens. — For its own government Athens developed a pure democracy, as far as it went, in that all voters had a direct share in choosing officers and making decisions. All adult male citizens belonged to the Assembly, or *Ecclḗsia*, which met on the hill Pnyx (nīx) every eight or nine days. In such a crowd real deliberation was out of the question, even though many did not attend. The people simply voted on propositions presented by leaders such as Pericles, for nobody else had much opportunity to propose anything new. Citizens were paid out of the public treasury for taking part in the meetings of the assembly or serving on juries.

Every year a certain number of citizens were chosen for service on *dicas'teries*, or juries. Each jury might include 201, 501, or some other large number of persons. A man was expected to plead his own case before the whole group if accused of crime, or present the arguments against his opponent if the case was a civil suit. Some people made their living by writing speeches for others to deliver in court, for, as you know, not everybody is good at composing speeches.

If the Athenians could only have worked into their government more of the principle of representation, it would probably have

been still more successful. The Athenian kind of democracy could never work on a large scale. Besides, about one-third of the inhabitants of Athens were slaves; and many other useful residents — business men and the like — could have no part in the government if they could not prove that they were descended from both



HAGSTROM COMPANY, N.Y., Map Makers

ATHENS IN THE 5TH AND 4TH CENTURIES B.C.

Many of the numbered locations shown on this map are referred to in the text. Agora means market place. Stoa means porch. The prytane'um was a sort of official headquarters of certain public officers.

an Athenian father and an Athenian mother. Pericles' own friend, Aspā'sia, one of the brightest women of her time, could not marry him because she was not of pure Greek ancestry. Such a condition, we would say, was considerably short of real democracy.

Which do you think would be more likely to be moved by emotion rather than by facts, a jury of 12 people such as we commonly have today or a jury of 200, 500, or more? Do we pay people for jury service today? What is wrong with choosing officers by lot, as some Athenian officers were chosen? What do you think would be the effect upon one's self-respect or his attitude toward his government if he were paid for voting in elections today? Has there been any modern parallel to the "pure blood" policy of Athens in regard to citizenship?

At the height of prosperity Athens and her port were an active center of trade. They exported olive oil, wine, figs, pottery, and other manufactured goods, and imported products from all parts of the Aegean Sea. Marble from the hill Pentēlīcus furnished material for sculptors and architects. Tradesmen and merchants, many of whom were foreigners, made a living by making small articles or keeping goods for sale. In manufacturing helmets, shoes, and the like, they developed some division of labor. Some men made a business of caring for other people's valuables and lending money at interest, as bankers do today. The farms of Attica could not grow enough to enable Athens to depend on them. She thought she had to maintain a good-sized fleet to protect her trade with other districts, especially those from which Athens bought considerable wheat.

The work of mines and quarries and of many farms and homes was done by slaves. Sometimes slaves were well educated and could even teach the children of the family. Slaves had no legal rights whatever, but some did have the chance to earn money for themselves, and after a considerable time might save up enough to purchase their own freedom.

Do you suppose a slave would have to pay more for his own freedom than his master could buy him for in the market? Do you think business men would be satisfied to live in a city in which they were not allowed to have any share in public affairs?

48. Home Life and Culture in Ancient Athens. — Residence districts in Athens were usually unattractive. The streets were usually narrow and dirty. The houses, of one story, or perhaps two, sometimes had no windows at all and were built close to the street. The floors were simply dirt packed down hard, with sometimes a surface of very small stones. The house of a well-to-do family would probably have connected with it an open court

and a porch supported by columns. There the members of the family would spend much of their time when at home. Water was brought in jars from some well or spring by slaves. Athenian men spent much of their time outdoors, and nobody cared much whether Athenian women had conveniences or not. There was no sewerage system of any kind, and garbage and other waste matter was thrown right out of the house into the street.

Clothing was very simple and cheap. Almost everybody wore plain white. There might be a loose, sleeveless undergarment and an outer one which was thrown or folded around the body in sometimes a rather graceful fashion. In the better homes



ATHENIAN LADIES AMUSING THEMSELVES

there were numerous books in the form of rolls of papyrus, sometimes 150 feet long or more. Greeks had to do their reading in the daytime because they had only olive oil for use in lamps, and the light furnished by that means was not very good. But many would prefer to meet in the agora and talk with philosophers, politicians, and men of their own class rather than read.

Wheat, barley, and some kinds of meat furnished the chief items on the bill of fare. Wine, rather than water, was the usual drink. Olive oil also found a useful place on the Greek table. Greek men reclined on couches when they ate; a man's wife would probably sit at the foot of the couch.

Though the Greeks gave high ratings to some of their female divinities, the real women of ancient Athens were usually housekeepers and practically nothing else. Only one woman, the poetess Sappho (săf'fō), gained any high place in Greek literature. She lived much earlier than the time of Pericles. Girls were edu-

cated only as far as their mothers were able to do it. As a girl grew up, she learned rather early that probably by the time she was fifteen she might be married to a total stranger, picked out for her by her parents.

Boys, however, received an education which for those times was broad and interesting. They learned the poems of Homer and passages from other poets, and, whenever they had the ability, were trained in some form of music. They received a good physical education also. A boy went from one schoolmaster to



SCHOOL DAYS OF AN ATHENIAN BOY

This picture is taken from an ancient bowl. You see at the right the "pedagogue" who takes the boy to his teacher. Next to him is the boy learning how to read or to recite poetry. Then he is taking a lesson on the lyre.

another under the care of a slave, called a *pedagogue*, from the Greek word which means "leader of a child." The pedagogue carried the boy's books, his writing tablet made of wax, and whatever else was needed. Schoolmasters received poor pay and were not highly thought of socially.

When a boy from an Athenian family reached the age of eighteen, he took the oath which qualified him as a citizen. Then he was supposed to spend a year or two in military training. Some Greek boys became much interested in track and field sports, but others, just as some do today, preferred to loaf in gambling joints or drinking places, and too often indulged in "wild parties."

Here is one version of the "Ephebic (ěfě'bie) Oath," which the Athenian boy took when he was received into full citizenship. Wouldn't it be good for today?

"We will never bring disgrace to this city by any act of dishonesty or cowardice, nor ever desert our suffering comrades in the ranks.

"We will fight for the ideals and sacred things of the city, both singly and together. We will revere and obey the city's laws, and do our best to incite a like respect and reverence in those above us who are prone to annul or set them at naught.

"We will strive unceasingly to quicken the public sense of civic duty. Thus in all these ways we will transmit this city not only not less, but greater, better, and more beautiful than it was transmitted to us."

Compare the education of an Athenian boy with what you have already learned about the training of Spartan youths. Why do you suppose Athenians were so anxious to have their temples and public places beautiful, yet so careless about their streets and homes?

49. The Strife between Athens and Sparta.—The story of the hundred years from about 450 B.C. onward might well be called "the suicide of Greece." No more senseless and destructive civil strife ever occurred. Athens foolishly made many of her associates hate her. The more important Athens became, the more jealous did Sparta become. So did Corinth, which was a commercial city and a sort of rival of Athens in that respect. And so did Thebes, the leading city of central Greece. The Peloponnesian League, organized much earlier by Sparta, balanced the power of the newer Athenian, or Delian, League. When Athens tried to extend her power on the land as well as on the sea, she met strong resistance.

If two people are looking for trouble, do they usually find it? Does the same principle apply to two countries?

The climax of this childish controversy was the so-called Peloponnesian War (431–404 B.C.). A Spartan army invaded Attica. The Athenians took refuge behind the "Long Walls" which connected the city with Piræus. While the Athenians were living there in a crowded condition, they were attacked by a terrible plague, which carried away a large part of the population, including the great leader Pericles (429 B.C.). With Pericles gone there was no one to lead the Athenian people except tricky politicians or men of little ability.

After a time a young man named Alcibi'adēs, good-looking and ambitious — just the kind to make an impression on some of the Athenians — proposed that Athens organize an immense expedition to conquer Sicily and then use the wealth thus gained to establish herself again at the head of affairs in Greece. The Athenians were carried away by the idea; but the night before the expedition was to start somebody damaged some statues of Hermes in Athens. Why Alcibiades would do a thing like that is impossible to understand. But he was accused of it; and later, when called back to stand trial before his fellow citizens, he turned traitor, went to Sparta, and told the Spartans all about the Athenian plans. As a result, the expedition to Syracuse, in Sicily, was a terrible failure. Practically all the Athenians who went on it lost their lives (415–413 B.C.).

As long as Athens could get grain and other things that she needed from outside of Greece, she could maintain herself. Her fleet protected this commerce for several years, but in 405 B.C. most of her ships were captured on the coast of the Hellespont by a force of Spartans, led by Lysan'der, in the so-called battle of Aegospōt'āmī.

The next year (404 B.C.) the Spartans attacked Athens herself, and she had to surrender. Under the terms of peace Athens had to tear down all her walls and give up all her ships but twelve. Her enemies thought of completely destroying the city, but Sparta was afraid that if this should be done, some other city might rise which would be more dangerous to her own power.

Do you think it is wise for a people to depend so completely on a few leaders as the Athenians seem to have done? If a people are really great, will leaders be likely to appear, no matter what the emergency may be? Do you think that has been true in the history of the United States?

50. Sparta's Supremacy and Its Overthrow. — For the next generation Sparta was the master of the cities of Greece (404–371 B.C.). In many cities Sparta overthrew democratic governments and set up aristocracies instead. She doubled their taxes. Persian money helped to keep her in power longer than we might have supposed.

One remarkable episode during this period showed that Persia was really pretty weak. Cyrus, the brother of King Artaxerx'es,

wanted to take the throne of Persia away from him, and hired some Greeks to help him. Cyrus' army marched hundreds of miles into the heart of the Persian Empire before they met the army of the King. In the battle that followed Cyrus was killed. The Greeks then made their way north to the Black Sea and westward again to Asia Minor. In all this long trip they suffered no serious loss from the Persians. One of the Greeks, Xen'ophon, wrote the story of this "march of the ten thousand," under the title of *The Anab'asis*. This is usually the first connected piece of literature that a student reads when he studies Greek.

As the star of Athens went down, that of Thebes rose in central and northern Greece. Thebes had one wonderful general and leader named Epaminon'das, under whose leadership Thebes for a little while stood first among the Greek cities (371-362 B.C.). The Spartans were, for the first time in their history, actually defeated in open battle. Epaminondas had a new method of organizing his troops in a sort of massed formation known as the *phā'lanx*. When this body, 50 men deep, was set in motion, it could break through almost any line.

"Politics makes strange bed-fellows." Now Athens and Sparta united to cut down the power of Thebes. The Thebans won another battle (Mantinē'a, 362 B.C.), but this time they were unlucky, and Epaminondas was killed. Now everybody was exhausted, and the glory of Greece was waning fast.

Why do you suppose no Greek city could rule other cities without tyranny? Is this statement true: "Greece could save Europe from Persian conquest, but could not save herself from her own folly"? If there had been telephones and railroads in the days of Pericles or Epaminondas do you think Greek disunion might have been avoided?

51. Philip of Macedon Appears on the Scene. — Now we come to the time when the civilization of Greece became the possession of the civilized world. An outsider had to do for the Greeks what they could not do for themselves — bring them together. He was the king of a people from the north, the Macedonians, who had far less culture than the Greeks but had some other desirable qualities, and who claimed that they were Greeks themselves.

Philip II became king in 359 B.C. When Thebes was controlling affairs in Greece, he had been taken captive and carried to Thebes

as a hostage. That gave him a chance to learn considerable about the Greeks. After he became king, he conquered the neighboring district of Thrace, where gold mines were located which helped him tremendously in furnishing funds for the undertakings that he had in mind. He made up his mind that he would make himself ruler of Greece and then make the Greeks follow him in an invasion of the Persian Empire.

Only a few saw through Philip's designs. One of these was the Athenian, Demos'thenēs, a wonderful orator. He delivered speech after speech against Philip, but could not get many of the Greeks to oppose the Macedonian. Athens, Thebes, and a few other cities did attempt to resist Philip when in 338 B.C. he came into central Greece with an army. The Greeks were defeated, however, at the battle of Chaeronea (keronē'a), and then all of the leading cities except Sparta felt obliged to submit to him.

With the Greeks apparently under his control, Philip now made them his dazzling proposition. If they would accept his leadership, he would march into Asia and take vengeance on Persia for her past wrongs to the Greeks. He would set free the Greek cities in Asia Minor — and who could tell where he would stop? At a congress held in Corinth most of the Greek cities agreed to support him, but before he could get his expedition under way an assassin took his life (336 B.C.).

Does Philip deserve praise or blame for his policy toward Greece? Alexander later on told some of his Macedonian soldiers with reference to his father: "He found you wanderers and destitute, feeding sheep on the mountain sides. He gave you cloaks to wear, led you down into the plains, and made you able to fight your barbarian neighbors. Instead of slaves and subjects he made you rulers." Was Alexander exaggerating?

52. Alexander, the Boy and the Man. — Now was there anyone who could take Philip's place? His son, Alexander, was only twenty years old. "What can such a boy do?" the Greeks asked themselves.

But this boy had already made somewhat of a reputation for himself. He had been a pupil of the great Athenian philosopher, Ar'istōtle. He knew the *Iliad* by heart and carried a copy of it with him which he put under his pillow at night. Perhaps you

have heard of his taming the wild horse which he named Buceph'alus and out of which he made almost a companion for himself. He



ALEXANDER

Here is the young conqueror as imagined by an ancient sculptor. Quite possibly it is a fairly good picture of him. At least we know he shaved himself regularly, unlike a good many famous ancient Greeks.

was a fine-looking young man, athletic, with an irresistible will, but also with a fiery temper which he did not always control, and a habit of indulging in drink which finally proved his ruin.

Some Greeks, and others whom Philip had conquered, thinking they might regain their freedom, stirred up revolts all through Alexander's dominion. But the rebels didn't know Alexander! Every revolt was suppressed; and as an example of what might happen to the rest, the city of Thebes was leveled to the ground. He saved only the homes of some priests and the house where the famous poet Pín'dar had lived. Thereafter Alexander had no trouble with his Greek subjects.

Why do you suppose Alexander saved the house of Pindar? Do you think Alexander's personal qualities were those that a world conqueror should possess?

53. Alexander's Conquests. — Alexander had once complained that his father would leave nothing for him to do. But before he was old enough to be elected President in the United States, he had overrun the whole Persian Empire and was looking forward to more conquests. In 334 B.C. he set out on the great enterprise which his father had planned. Crossing the Hellespont, he won a great battle near the river Grani'cus, and then moved down the coast of Asia Minor, setting the Greek cities free from Persian rule.¹

¹ He visited the town of Gordium, where he tried to untie the famous Gordian knot, by which a farmer had fastened his horse. An oracle had said that whoever could untie this knot would rule the world. Alexander could not untie it, but took his sword and cut it in two. This was the origin of our expression, "cutting the Gordian knot," as a quick way out of a difficulty.

Persian power declines			Arbela 331		Alexander's Empire breaks up
Spartan supremacy (404) in Greece		Theban 371 rule 362	Rise of Macedonia Philip II 359	Alexander 336	
				323	
Plato			Demosthenes	↓ In India 327	
				Aristotle	
Gauls take Rome 390?		Licinian Laws 367	Rome conquers Latins 338		
400 B.C.		4TH CENTURY B.C.			301

Alexander met the Persian king, Darius III, at Issus, near the northeastern corner of the Mediterranean Sea (333 B.C.), and won another startling victory. Darius now proposed that the territory of the Persian Empire be divided between them, but Alexander was not dividing things with anyone!¹ He turned south along the Mediterranean and came to Tyre, which was loyal to Persian rule. After a siege of seven months he captured and destroyed the city (332 B.C.).

Then he moved on to Egypt. The Egyptians surrendered to him without a struggle, because they had been under Persian rule so long that any change of master looked good. Here he founded the city of Alexandria. Alexander also went out into the desert to visit the oracle of Zeus Ammon and inquired whether he was a descendant of Zeus as his mother had told him. The oracle very accommodatingly told him it was so, and this information helped the Egyptians to think well of their new master.

King Darius III now had either to fight or submit, for Alexander moved eastward toward Mesopotamia. He met the enormous army of Darius near the town of Arbē'la, not far from the site of the old city of Nineveh. Once more Alexander won a great victory (331 B.C.). King Darius fled and later died from a wound inflicted by one of his own followers.

There was nobody left to resist Alexander's army as it moved from one to another of the three great Persian capitals, Babylon,

¹ When Darius proposed to divide Persian territory with Alexander, Alexander's reply was this: "There cannot be two suns in the heavens." Alexander asked his friend, Parmē'nio, what he would do with the invitation. "I would accept it, if I were Alexander," said Parmenio. "And so would I, if I were Parmenio," replied Alexander.

Susa, and Persepolis. Persepolis was burned to the ground. You can trace the route of his soldiers on the map, but can you imagine just what it meant for them to cover that ground? Crossing deserts, great rivers, and twice the Hindu Kush Mountains! Think of marching for years in all kinds of weather, burning hot and bitter cold!



But at last Alexander's soldiers balked! Alexander had taken them into the valley of the Indus River and wanted to go on farther to the Ganges; but when his soldiers refused, he had to turn back. His admiral, Near'chus, came back by water from the Indus River through the Persian Gulf, reopening a famous water route between India and the Near East.

Alexander's conquests seemed to turn his head. He came to like the luxury and show of an Oriental monarch. Even his soldiers complained of the change in his manner. Yet he did not forget Aristotle; as he traveled he collected various specimens of plants and minerals and sent them back to his old teacher. But what an end came to this brilliant young conqueror, whose like the world had never seen! His strength worn with constant marching

and excesses, he finally met his death at Babylon after a disgraceful spree (323 B.C.) — only thirty-three years old !

How different do you suppose the history of the world would have been if Alexander had gone east to the Ganges? How different do you suppose it would have been if he had restrained his bad habits?

54. What Happened to Alexander's Empire. — We are told that Alexander once wept because there were no more worlds to conquer. It is one thing to conquer a country and another to rule it after it has been conquered. On his death bed he said that his authority should go "to the strongest"; but his generals could not agree on who that was. They fought it out for twenty years. The result was that Alexander's dominions were split into four kingdoms, but one of these lasted only during the lifetime of the general who received it.

Macedonia, with Greece under its control most of the time, was one of the three kingdoms that survived. The Greek cities were dissatisfied with the later Macedonian kings. In the third century B.C. many of them tried to protect themselves by forming two leagues, the Aetō'lian and the Achæan.¹ Athens and Sparta refused to join either of these and thus weakened both themselves and the leagues. Quarrels among the Greeks gave an excuse for Rome, a rising power from the West, to intervene; and after 146 B.C. Macedonia and Greece were wholly under its rule.

A general named Seleu'cus took Syria and the region to the east as his part of the spoils. In time most of the eastern territories fell away from the rule of the kings of Syria, and Syria in turn came under the sway of the Romans.

In some respects the most flourishing portion of Alexander's empire was Egypt. It was taken by a general named Ptol'emy. Part of the time Palestine, Phœnicia, and Cyprus were also under Egyptian rule. Several members of the Ptolemy family were capable rulers who developed their kingdom intellectually and commercially. Finally, they too were overpowered by the all-conquering Romans (31 B.C.).

¹ The Achæan League was the first attempt to set up what we might call a federal republic. Its members were supposed to be independent and to control their own local affairs, but there was a central government, with an executive and a law-making division. The makers of the United States Constitution studied the Achæan League when they were trying to work out their own problems.

On the map following page 146 locate the surviving kingdoms of Alexander's Empire.

Alexander quite likely had heard of Rome. Why do you suppose he directed his conquest to the east instead of heading in the other direction? Are you surprised that Alexander's dominions were not held together after his death?

55. How Alexander's Conquests Produced a New Civilization.

— Alexander intended to make the vast region that he conquered one unified empire. He founded seventy cities, many of them named after him, left soldiers as garrisons in them, and invited merchants and settlers to make their homes there. The kings of Syria who followed him did the same thing, so that on the map of the Near East in those days one might have found numerous Seleucias and An'tiochs named after Seleucus or some of his successors who were named Anti'ochus. Alexander expected to exchange the plants and other products of the Near East with those of Macedonia and Greece. He married two Eastern wives and encouraged his soldiers also to find brides among the women of the conquered districts.

Commerce and trade were encouraged between the new cities of the Near East and those of Greece and Macedonia. Oriental customs and ideas were carried to the west, and Greek customs spread eastward. A new civilization sprang up that was a mixture of Greek and Oriental. To distinguish between this and what was definitely Greek, or "Hellenic," we speak of the new civilization as "Hellenistic." Greek became almost a universal language of culture and commerce. Not everybody spoke Greek, of course, but some in every corner of the Hellenistic world understood it. All these influences helped to remove the old distinction between Greek and "barbarian" and to broaden the interests of human beings everywhere.

In the new Hellenistic world the cities of Alexandria and Antioch were outstanding. They became far more rich and populous than any of the cities of Greece ever had been. Rhodes, Per'gamum, Ephesus, and Smyrna were also noted centers of culture or trade.

Alexandria was the only large city of ancient times — and we should have to make few exceptions in modern times — which was planned before it was built. Its streets were paved and were

Ptolemies rule in Egypt	Rise of Alexandria	Revival of culture and trade
Euclid	Eratosthenes	
Septuagint	Rise of Antioch and Pergamum	
	Asoka (India) spreads Buddhism	Chinese build Great Wall
Epicurus	Zeno	Aetolian and Achaean Leagues
	Archimedes	Hannibal
Rome expands over Italy	1st Punic War	2nd Punic War
	264	241
		218
		201
300 B.C.	3RD CENTURY B.C.	201

lighted at night. A wonderful museum and library were established, and the city became the greatest center of learning in the world. Over half a million books were collected for the library by the Ptolemies. Scientists studied there, living on pensions paid by the government. A translation of the Old Testament into Greek was made by scholars under the direction of Ptolemy II, which was known as the *Sep'tuagint*, because about seventy men were supposed to have had a part in the work. Then, as today in that city and Cairo, one might have found representatives of almost every kind of people. Alexandria was for a long time the chief commercial city of the Mediterranean world.

Antioch in Syria was another famous center of Hellenistic culture. It had attractive streets and beautiful buildings, and was second only to Alexandria as a center of trade and industry. Rhodes, on an island off the coast of Asia Minor, was famous for both its art and its laws. About 3000 statues adorned its streets and buildings. Some of its principles of law were later adopted by the Romans and thus became indirectly the foundation of some modern laws.

Should we credit these vast changes to the achievements of one man in about twelve years, or had the time come for some great change to take place and Alexander's conquests simply set the change in motion? Did Alexander's conquests have any harmful results?

56. The Greek Sense of Beauty and Art. — Many Greeks naturally loved beauty. Greek artists had a wonderful sense of proportion and restraint. "Moderation in all things" and "Nothing in excess" are two expressions which characterized

their artistic thinking. They did not always give their statues and temples the impressive bigness which the Egyptians did, but they made them much more natural and beautiful. Most Greeks were fairly good-looking, and we see in their statues as fine representations of the human form as sculptors ever made. They tried to

have their work perfect because they believed the gods liked perfection and could see everywhere.

Many of their statues and friezes were made from marble, quarried on Mt. Pentelicus just outside of Athens, or on the island of Paros. Other statues were made of bronze or of wooden frames covered with ivory and gold. Very little Greek painting has been preserved, but we can hardly doubt that Greeks must have been capable of work of high quality in this field of art as well.

The greatest of all Greek sculptors was Phidias, the friend of Pericles, who, with



THE DISCOBOLUS

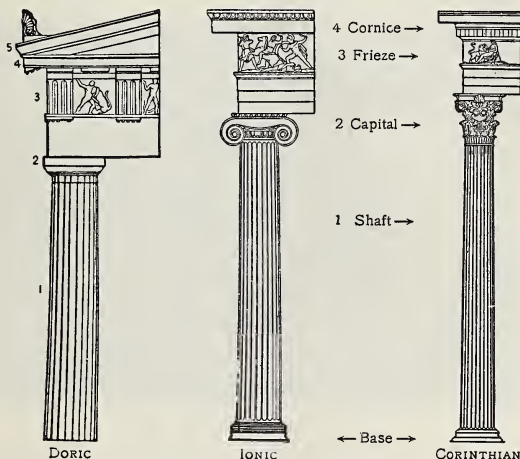
This statue of the discus-thrower is one of the most famous of all works of ancient sculpture. This particular statue is in the Vatican Museum at Rome.

the help of his pupils, built the great ivory and gold statues of Zeus and Athena and decorated the Parthenon. Next to him perhaps was Praxit'elēs, who made the famous statue of Hermes and the infant Dīonȳ'sus, which is the only authentic original piece of Greek sculpture that we have. All our other representations of Greek statues are models or copies made by Roman artists or copied after them.

A characteristic of Greek sculpture is the impression it gives of calmness, poise, and dignity. Comparatively little of it shows violent action or pain. The Discus-Thrower, or Discob'olus, made by My'ron, is one of the few famous statues representing action. Of those which signify distress the most famous is that of Laocoon

(la-ðe'o-ðn) and his sons. This was one of the later works of Greek sculpture, coming probably from the Hellenistic period. The famous Venus de Milo (or Aphrodite of Melos) is another work of the Hellenistic period.

Have you ever noticed any use of the Venus de Milo as an example of the ideal measurements of a woman's body? Do you imagine that if we had Greek sculptors today like those of ancient times, they would glorify some of our football stars or record-breaking track men? Would Helen Wills Moody have made a good model for a Greek sculptor?



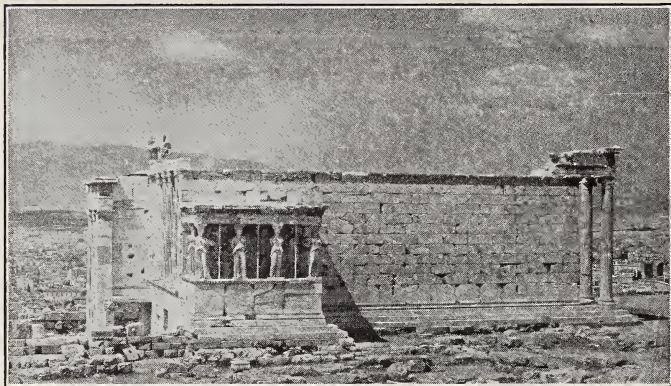
KINDS OF GREEK COLUMNS

Between the Ionic and the Corinthian columns are names applying to different parts. You will easily recognize the corresponding parts of the Doric column, except that the Doric column has no formal base. A little of the roof (5) is also shown above the Doric column.

57. Greek Columns and Temples. — Greeks found in their temples their greatest opportunity for expressing artistic feeling in the form of architecture. The temple was often the only large building in a Greek city. It was commonly built in honor of some god or goddess, but people did not gather there for worship. Sacrifices were left there for the divinity to whom the temple was sacred, but, of course, priests got the benefit of them. The early temples

had rows of columns only at the ends of buildings, with perhaps a narrow porch; but later, columns were extended all around the building. The Greeks may have got this idea from the Egyptians, though they, unlike the Egyptians, made their columns graceful, rather than massive.

From the form of the columns used to support the roof of temples and other buildings we get the names that we apply to three "orders" of architecture—the Doric, the Ionic, and the Corinthian. The *Doric* was the plainest of the three. A Doric column had



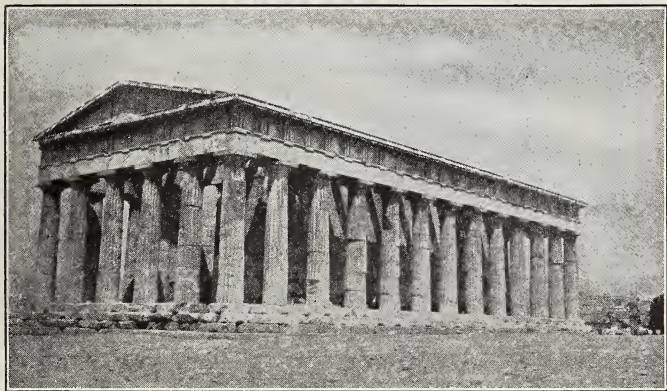
THE PORCH OF THE MAIDENS

This small portico on one side of the temple known as the Erechtheum was unusual in that statues of young women supported the roof instead of the usual columns. In this picture, one sees in the distance the wide-spreading city of modern Athens.

no base and only a very plain capital. (The illustrations on the preceding page show the meaning of some of the terms used in architecture.) The *Ionic* capital with its scrolls and more slender supporting column was also popular. The most ornate of the three orders was the *Corinthian*, which was used more by the Romans than by the Greeks. It is said that it was suggested to an artist by the impression made upon him as he saw a basket set down on the leaves of an acanthus plant. On some temples the frieze was used for representation of perhaps hundreds of living figures, human and animal.

The most famous temple, the Parthenon (p. 98), on the Acropolis in Athens, is 100 by 250 feet in size. Some figures from it were taken to England by Lord Elgin, once British Minister to Turkey, and are known as the Elgin Marbles. The Parthenon served by turns as a temple of Athena, a Christian church, and a Mohammedan mosque. The disaster which half wrecked it was the result of the use of it by the Turks as a powder magazine.

Another famous temple on the Acropolis was the Erechthē'um. This was especially notable for the Porch of the Maidens, where



THE THESEUM (SO-CALLED) AT ATHENS

This is one of the best preserved of all the ancient Greek temples. It is generally believed today, however, not to have been erected in honor of Theseus, the legendary founder of Athens, but in honor of Athena herself.

six figures of young women, instead of columns, hold up the roof. The so-called Thesē'um is the best preserved of all the temples of ancient Athens. In some other Greek cities there are still temples in fairly good condition.

What buildings have you seen in your community or elsewhere that illustrate any of the orders of Greek architecture? Do you think of any buildings put up in recent years anywhere whose only use is as a memorial to some famous person?

58. Greek Gifts in Language and Literature. — Greeks sometimes referred to "the poet," taking it for granted that none

could compare with the immortal Homer — or whoever really did write the *Iliad* and *Odyssey*. Another *epic* poet was Hēsiod, who composed the *Theog'ony*, which relates the stories of Greek divinities, and *Works and Days*, a poem dealing with farm life.

Somewhat later *lyric* poetry became the chief form of composition. This was intended to be recited as the lyre was played and dealt with the feelings and emotions rather than with great deeds and characters. Best known of the lyric poets was Pindar, strangely but notably honored, you recall, by Alexander the Great. Another writer of lyrics, especially notable because she was a woman, was Sappho. Greeks sometimes called her "the poetess" in the same spirit that they called Homer "the poet."

Do you think any modern people show the same respect for an author or his works as the Greeks felt for Homer? If a foreign army should invade England today, do you imagine Shakespeare's home at Stratford would be spared in preference to other buildings in the town?

After the Persian War appeared the beginning of *history* among the Greeks. Herodotus (484-425 B.C.), a friend of Pericles, was sometimes called the "father of history." His great work was a history of the Persian Wars. He did not always stick close to his subject, and in his history we find a great deal about Egypt and other countries as well as about the Greeks and Persians. He tried harder to make his story interesting than to be sure that everything in it was correct.

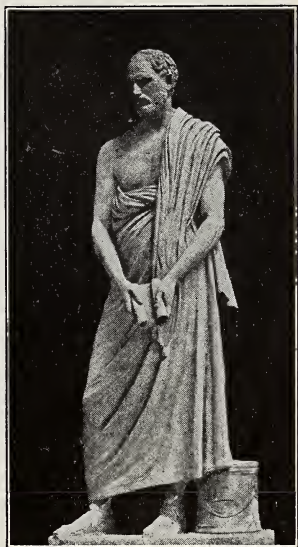
The next famous Greek historian was Thucyd'idēs (471-400 B.C.). He took part in the Peloponnesian War and was well qualified to tell about it. Besides, he wrote in the spirit of the scientific historian of today. He tried to make sure that he told the truth, and discussed the cause and effect of events instead of merely relating them. Another historian of note was Xenophon (430-355 B.C.), whose *Anabasis* we have already mentioned (§ 50). He also wrote the *Memorabilia of Socrates*, indicating that he was either a pupil or a friend of that most famous of all Greek philosophers.

The prince of Greek *orators* — some would say of all orators — was Demosthenes, who almost alone stood out against Philip of Macedon when Philip was planning to get control of Greece. Perhaps you have read about the difficulties Demosthenes encountered

in his first attempts to make speeches and how he overcame them by practicing by the seashore with pebbles in his mouth until he could make his voice heard even under such unfavorable conditions. Some say that his oration *On the Crown*, which was written in his own behalf, excels any other oration ever delivered.

The Greek language itself should perhaps be mentioned as a literary contribution to which we of today are much indebted. Though it is seldom studied now in our high schools, it was once required of almost everybody who went to college. Very many of our scientific words are taken directly from the Greek, as well as some in everyday speech. Think, for example, of the words which include the syllable "graph" or "gram."

Can a historian be both interesting and accurate? Have we had any orators in the United States whom you would think worthy to compare with Demosthenes? Is oratory a lost art today? Have our tastes changed in regard to what we like to hear from public speakers? Does the work of women authors today receive as much recognition as that of men?



DEMOSTHENES

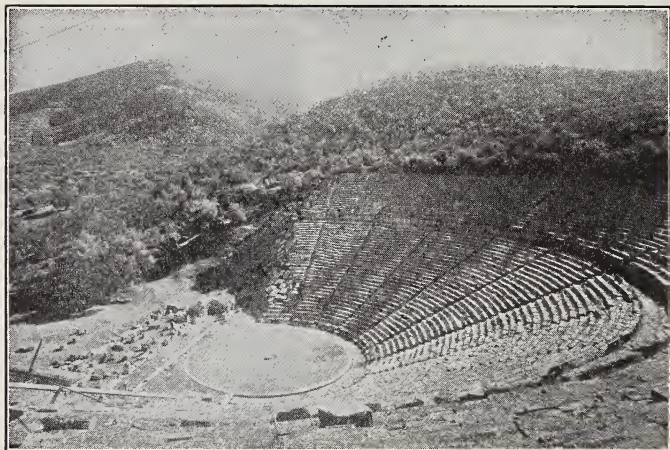
A statue of the greatest orator of ancient Athens. It now stands in the Vatican at Rome.

59. The Drama in Greek Life.

—To the Greeks of the fifth century B.C. the theater was not a place for mere amusement. Some plays taught moral lessons as truly as could any sermon — and the Greeks had no opportunity to listen to sermons. Pericles thought attendance at the theater so desirable that he even arranged to pay the admission fee for poor citizens.

Four names stand out among Greek dramatists of the fifth century B.C. Three of these were writers of tragedy — Aeschylus (ēs'kīlūs), Soph'oclēs, and Eurip'idēs. "Tragedy" meant in the

first place "goat song," because a goat was sacrificed in connection with its presentation. The Greek tragic dramatists constantly emphasized that man should not aspire too high or the gods would bring him low by some terrible punishment. That was why the Persians met their disastrous defeat at the battle of Salamis — they had defied the gods.



A FAMOUS THEATER

This theater at Epidauros is the best preserved of all those built in ancient times. It gives one a fine idea of the arrangement of the seats and the circular place below, where the chorus appeared for its part in the dramas that were presented. The stage has suffered more through the centuries than any other part of this theater.

The great comic dramatist was Aristoph'anēs. Most of his plays have such simple names as *The Frogs*, *The Birds*, and *The Clouds*. The writer of comedy enjoyed ridiculing some weakness in the everyday life of the people, as Aristophanes joked at the Athenians for liking to serve on juries. Sometimes, too, just as occasionally happens today, a playwright would make fun of a good man, or a deed done with a worthy motive, as Aristophanes did of the philosopher Socrates.

A Greek theater was very different from a theater of today. The famous Theater of Dionysus at the foot of the Acropolis,

in Athens, would hold 20,000 people. Everything was given as an outdoor performance and in the daytime, with no elaborate scenery or stage setting. The earliest dramatists had but one speaker on the stage at one time, but later dramatists introduced a second, and then a third. In playing a tragedy, the actors wore heavily padded clothes; in a comedy, lighter garments. Queer-looking masks were also a part of their costume. Actors made use of pantomime when in theaters so large that it was impossible for them to be heard by all the audience. Then the chorus, which sang or danced, had to interpret the play and help the audience to understand it. All the actors were men or boys, frequently members of noble families.

Would you like to witness a Greek play? Are any ever presented on the stage today? What differences do you notice between the theater in the days of Pericles and the theater of today? How many modern plays do you know of which undertake to teach a moral lesson?

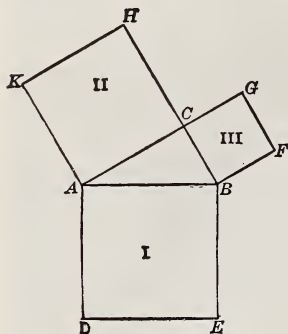
60. Greek Thinkers and Their Influence. — Greeks liked to speculate and talk. Among them were more of what are sometimes called “frontier thinkers” than among any similar number of people who ever lived. They excelled in *philosophy*, that is, the consideration of the reasons why the world is what it is, and the way men ought to act. Their philosophers not only made history for Greece in the realm of thought, but exerted an influence upon the thinking of men for a thousand years.

The first Greek philosopher to become famous was Thā'lēs, who lived in Miletus, in Asia Minor. He gained fame by predicting an eclipse, and also worked out a number of the fundamental principles of geometry. Pythag'oras, born on the island of Samos, was also interested in geometry and developed that famous proposition shown in the figure on the next page. He believed that the earth is the center of the solar system, and that the planets go around it — just as everybody else believed for many centuries. Another early philosopher, Anaxāg'oras, declared that the sun was not a god but a flaming rock, maybe larger than the Peloponnesus. “Reason rules the world,” he insisted.

The names of Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle stand out beyond all others in ancient philosophy. They all lived in Athens. Their

lives, overlapping to some extent, cover the whole period from Pericles to Alexander the Great.

Soc'râtēs (470-399 B.C.) ranks among the greatest moral teachers who ever lived. "Know thyself," he often urged. Know what is good and do what is right, was his teaching. Socrates was far from handsome, but his mind was wonderful. He originated what we sometimes call the "Socratic" method of teaching — through questioning. He would appear in some public place and begin to ask questions of the men who were there, keeping at them until he made clear how little they really did know. That method did not always make him popular, because people do not like to have their ignorance shown up.



PYTHAGORAS FIRST PROVED THIS

Does this bring painful memories to any reader? It is simply part of the construction used to prove a very famous proposition — the sum of the squares on the two sides of a right triangle are equal to the square on the hypotenuse. In other words, the square marked I is equal to square II plus square III.

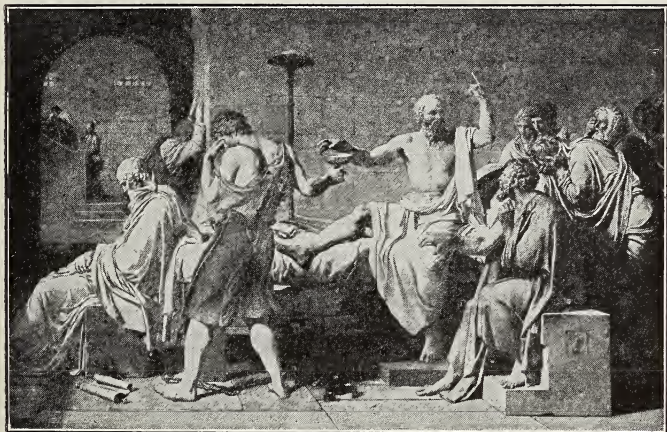
talk: "I have spoken many words to show that I shall leave you and go to the joys of the blessed. . . . Be of good cheer and say that you are burying my body only."

Plā'to (427-347 B.C.) was the greatest pupil of Socrates, and Plato's writings tell us most of what we know about him. Plato met his followers in the famous athletic field of Athens known as the Academy. From this fact we get our use of the word "academy" as a place where people may learn. Plato's moral teachings were exceedingly lofty. He believed in a future life as well as in an existence prior to that upon earth. The most am-

Socrates was finally accused of corrupting the Athenian youth by teaching them disrespect for the Greek divinities, and was sentenced to die. His pupils and friends continued to come to see him, and he carried on his conversations with them as if nothing serious were going to happen. Even when the numbness caused by the poison given him — the so-called hemlock — was creeping over him, he continued to

bitious of all Plato's works was the *Republic*. In this he set forth his notion of what an ideal government should be.

Just as Plato was the greatest pupil of Socrates, so Aristotle (384-322 B.C.) was the most famous student of Plato. He was sometimes called the "master of those who know." He was considered an authority in almost every line of thought — logic, language, ethics, politics, and many others — as late as the time



THE LAST HOURS OF SOCRATES

He is seen here talking with his friends as the officer comes to bring the fatal "hemlock" for him to drink. The original painting from which this picture is copied was made by the artist David.

of Columbus. He wrote more and on a greater variety of subjects than did Plato. College students today still study the rules of logic which he worked out. Aristotle was the first person we know of who believed that the earth is round, reaching this conclusion by noticing the shadow cast by the earth during an eclipse.

Do you think Socrates would have had more influence if he had been good-looking? Alexander the Great was a pupil of Aristotle. Would you say that he reflected credit upon his teacher?

Besides these masters among the "frontier thinkers" of ancient Greece there were any number of "lesser lights." One "school"

of philosophers was known as the *Soph'ists*. These men traveled from place to place, teaching for pay. Some of them lacked the moral principle and intelligence of the great philosophers, but by their tricky use of language were able to make people think they were much wiser than they were. Socrates made them his enemies by exposing their insincerity.

Two later schools of philosophy were the *Epicurē'ans* and the *Stō'ics*. Epicu'rus (342-270 B.C.) taught that people should be good, because by being good they could get the greatest amount of happiness out of life. His teaching was misunderstood and perverted into the doctrine "Eat, drink, and be merry, for tomorrow we die." Ze'no, the founder of the Stoics — so-called because he met his followers on a *stoa*, or "porch" — taught that people should live in accordance with reason and nature. They should take everything as it comes without grief or excitement. Stoics believed in one supreme god, and their teaching may have helped to prepare for the spread of Christianity.

What do such words as "sophistry" and "sophisticated" mean today? "epicurean" and "stoic"? Look up the story of Diōg'enes and his tub. Diogenes represented a group known as *Cynics* (sīn'ics).

61. Greek Scientists and Their Discoveries. — Except for Aristotle's studies, the Greeks made little headway in science for a long time. Egyptians had reckoned time much better for hundreds of years than Greeks did in the time of Pericles. The Greeks measured their months by the moon and had to put in an extra month every two or three years to get the calendar straight.

After the Hellenistic period began, however, Greeks in Alexandria and other places made thoroughly scientific studies and experiments. The Alexandrian Eratōs'thēnēs, the greatest geographer of his time, not only believed that the earth is round but figured the size of it only about one-seventh larger than it really is. Another geographer named Ptolemy (about 150 A.D.) set up the theory of the solar system which learned men accepted for hundreds of years.

Everybody who studies geometry should know Euclid; he first reasoned out the majority of the propositions in that subject. He said to Ptolemy, King of Egypt, who inquired if there were not

some easy way of learning geometry, "There is no royal road to geometry."

Archimē'des, of Syracuse, in Sicily, not only worked out many principles in solid geometry but also a number of the laws of physics. "Give me a place to stand," he said when discussing how a lever works, "and I will move the world." Unknown inventors devised numerous mechanical "gadgets," as well as machines for lifting and throwing things.

In medicine scientific progress was slow. The Greeks did not like to spoil the appearance of the human body by deliberately cutting it to pieces, and were for that reason unable to learn very much about physiology. An Alexandrian writer did discover that the arteries carry blood instead of air, as was once thought. For a long time, however, ignorance and magic played a considerable part in the things that were done to cure the sick. Hippoc'ratēs (about 460 to 377 B.C.) tried to put medicine on a scientific level.

Why do you suppose the Greeks were so far behind the Egyptians in science, when they excelled them so greatly in art and philosophy? Is it surprising that when men began to think and reason intelligently, they did not learn more about the human body and the proper care of it?

62. What We Owe to the Ancient Greeks. — Like everybody else who has lived since the days of Pericles and Alexander, we owe much to the Greeks. In Greece and in the lands conquered by Alexander the Greeks built a new civilization; and wherever Greeks planted colonies they took the Greek language, Greek thought, and Greek culture. When the Romans marched eastward and conquered Greece, they took to Italy statues and other souvenirs of Greek civilization. Greeks became teachers of their own conquerors — "Captive Greece led captive her conquerors rude." Thus Greek civilization was carried into most of the lands that came under the rule of Rome.

We cannot measure the gifts of Greece to the world in terms of conquest, wealth, or power. They saved the western world by driving back the Persians, but their victories were mainly those of the mind and spirit. The right of the individual to be himself and think for himself found in Greece its finest flowering in ancient times. Greeks often failed to measure up to the ideals of their

truest thinkers — remember how they treated Socrates! — but those ideals were there.

The Greeks tried every imaginable kind of government. Democracy was their greatest original contribution; for even though their democracy would not suit us, the principle was there. The notion that a free citizen had the right to share in his government was first put into practice by ancient Athens.

Greek sculptors and architects expressed their sense of beauty and proportion in forms that we still take as models. Greek philosophers were among the first to think deeply into the foundation principles of life and conduct. Greek poets set an example for those of other nations. Greek historians and teachers were the ablest in ancient times.

Not alone to the soldier, and not alone to the king
 Belong the plaudits and garlands that victors are wont to receive;
 Greater even than commerce or any material thing
 Are the works of the mind and the spirit Greece taught men to love and achieve.

Is there anything in your community which proves that the Greeks exerted some influence on the world? Would the world be worse off if the museums which contain statues of Greek artists or copies of these statues were all destroyed? Is it true that Greek geography influenced not only ancient times but ours?

IDEAS TO STAY WITH US

Greek people lived on both sides of the Aegean Sea, among natural surroundings that had a vital influence on their progress.

Greek life centered in cities or city-states, each developing in its own way. Language, religion, and many common interests held them together in some respects, but they were jealous of one another and never achieved political union.

Greek colonies carried to almost every part of the Mediterranean world the customs, culture, and interests of their mother cities.

Greeks had reason to fear Persia. In spite of many blunders, they successfully defended themselves against the invader, and at Marathon, Salamis, and elsewhere, won glorious victories.

Athens stood out first among the cities of Greece after the Persian Wars, but failed to use wisely her opportunities of leadership. Under Pericles she reached the height of her glory, but fell at last before Sparta. Sparta, in turn, misused her opportunities and gave way to a short-lived Theban leadership, ending with all Greece exhausted.

An outsider brought union to the Greeks which they had not cared to gain for themselves. Philip of Macedon established his authority over Greece and planned to lead an avenging army into Persia.

Alexander, Philip's son, carried out the project his father had had in mind, and by a series of amazing victories brought under his rule the whole of western Asia and Egypt as well. Though he died suddenly, through his conquests Greek and Oriental civilizations were brought together; and in the Hellenistic period that followed some of the greatest progress of ancient times was made.

Greece first gave an opportunity for the development of the individual and for democracy in government.

Greeks at their best sought to know and express the beautiful in thought and deed. Their temples, statues, poetry, and history, and the lofty thought of their philosophers, have helped to make our life richer and better. Greece has well been called "that spot of light in history."

NAMES AND TERMS WE SHOULD UNDERSTAND

- | | | |
|----------------------------|---------------------------|------------------|
| 1. Hellenes | 25. Clisthenes | 49. Praxiteles |
| 2. Hellas | 26. Ostracism | 50. Myron |
| 3. Homer | 27. Miltiades | 51. Parthenon |
| 4. <i>Iliad</i> | 28. Xerxes | 52. Theseum |
| 5. <i>Odyssey</i> | 29. Leonidas | 53. Pindar |
| 6. Barbarian | 30. Themistocles | 54. Sappho |
| 7. Trojan War | 31. Aristides | 55. Aeschylus |
| 8. Zeus | 32. Delian Confederacy | 56. Sophocles |
| 9. Hera | 33. Pericles | 57. Euripides |
| 10. Athena | 34. Areopagus | 58. Aristophanes |
| 11. Aphrodite | 35. Agora | 59. Herodotus |
| 12. Apollo | 36. Ephebic Oath | 60. Thucydides |
| 13. Elysian Fields | 37. Peloponnesian War | 61. Xenophon |
| 14. Oracles | 38. Epaminondas | 62. Demosthenes |
| 15. Amphictyony | 39. Philip | 63. Thales |
| 16. Olympic Games | 40. Phalanx | 64. Pythagoras |
| 17. City-state | 41. Alexander | 65. Socrates |
| 18. Acropolis | 42. Gordian Knot | 66. Plato |
| 19. Oligarchy; aristocracy | 43. Hellenic, Hellenistic | 67. Aristotle |
| 20. Tyrant | 44. Ptolemy | 68. Sophists |
| 21. "Spartan" | 45. Doric | 69. Epicureans |
| 22. Lycurgus | 46. Ionic | 70. Stoics |
| 23. Laconic | 47. Corinthian | 71. Euclid |
| 24. Solon | 48. Phidias | 72. Archimedes |

128 Gifts of Greece to the Modern World

DATES WORTH REMEMBERING

776 B.C.	Supposed date of first Olympic Games	480 B.C.	Battle of Salamis
594	Reforms of Solon in Athens	461-429	Age of Pericles
490	Battle of Marathon	431-404	Peloponnesian War
		336-323	Conquests of Alexander

INTERESTING SUBJECTS YOU MAY LIKE TO KNOW ABOUT

Early Civilization in Crete	Athenian Recreation
The Poems of Homer	Athenian Education
Life in Homeric Times	Athenian Business and Trade
The Story of the Trojan War	The Greatness and Weakness of Alexander
How the Greeks Got Their Alphabet	The Effect of Alexander's Conquests
Greek Oracles	The City of Alexandria
The Olympic and Other Greek Games	The Parthenon
Olympic Games of Today	The Seven Wonders of the Ancient World
The Story of Solon	The Athenian Theater
The Life of a Spartan Boy and Man	Herodotus
Greek Colonies and Their Importance	Thucydides
The Story of Marathon	Demosthenes
The Story of Thermopylae	Socrates
The Story of Salamis	Plato
The Athens of Pericles	Aristotle
Athenian Courts and Jury Service	Syllogisms in Logic as Aristotle Developed Them
Home Life in Athens	
Slavery among the Greeks	

INTERESTING PROJECTS YOU MAY LIKE TO UNDERTAKE

1. Draw a map of Greece, the Aegean Sea, and that portion of Asia Minor inhabited by Greeks. Locate on it all the places mentioned specifically in the text. Show also the routes followed by Persian armies and fleets as they attempted to conquer Greece.

2. Draw a map of the city of Athens in the time of Pericles, including in it or sketching separately a plan of the Acropolis.

3. Either on the map of the Near East which you have already drawn or on another similar map show the marches of Alexander and his troops, important cities, battlefields, and other locations connected with Alexander's career.

4. Work out a dramatization of characters connected with the story of the Trojan War. In doing this remember that there is no way of telling just how much of this story is history and how much is imagination.

5. Write an "Autobiography of a Spartan Boy," or "A Day in the Life of an Athenian Schoolboy," or "Pages from the Diary of an Athenian Boy (or Girl) about 480 B.C."

6. Dramatize a visit of an inquirer to the oracle at Delphi.

7. Plan a meeting of the Athenian Assembly to discuss the different policies of Themistocles and Aristides, some problem that might have arisen in Pericles' time, or some question connected with the Peloponnesian War.

8. Arrange for an Athenian jury trial.

9. Arrange a debate on the following question: Resolved, that life in ancient Athens in the time of Pericles was more encouraging to culture and high thinking than life in an American city today.

10. Make sketches or models of some of the following: the Parthenon, a Greek theater, a stadium, an Athenian house, Athenian dress, war equipment, a trireme.

11. Continue the Time and Event Chart for Egypt, western Asia, Greece, and Rome.

12. Continue the Chart of Trends in World Progress so as to include Greece.

13. Arrange several scenes to illustrate the life of a well-to-do Athenian in the time of Pericles.

14. Dramatize notable scenes from the life of Alexander the Great.

15. Arrange a "Who Am I?" exercise on famous characters in Greek history.

16. Hold a spelling match on names of Greek historical characters and names in Greek geography.

17. If possible, arrange for a visit to a museum which has models or copies of famous Greek works of art. If you cannot do that, see that the class has a chance to look at pictures of some famous Greek statues and temples.

PLACES FOR FURTHER READING

Botsford, *A Source Book in Ancient History*, II-XXVII

Breasted, *Ancient Times*, IX-XIX

Bury, *A History of Greece*

Davis, *Readings in Ancient History*, IV-X

Fling, *Source Book of Greek History*

Haaren and Poland, *Famous Men of Greece*

Mills, *The Book of the Ancient Greeks*

Osgood, *History of Industry*, 64-104

Webster, *Readings in Ancient History*, III-XIII

Wells, *Outline of History*, XXI-XXIV

Abbott, *Pericles*

Bercovici, *Alexander*

Blumner, *Home Life of the Ancient Greeks*

Davis, *A Day in Old Athens*

Dunbar, *The Light-Bearers*

Gayley, *Classic Myths*

Glotz, *Ancient Greece at Work*

Grant, *Greece in the Age of Pericles*

Guerber, *Story of the Greeks*

Gulick, *The Life of the Ancient Greeks*

Hall, *Men of Old Greece*

Herzberg, *Myths and Their Meaning*

Hopkinson, *Greek Leaders*

James, *Our Hellenic Heritage*

Mahaffy, *Alexander's Empire*

Reinach, *Apollo*

Tappan, *Story of the Greek People*

Tucker, *Life in Ancient Athens*

Wheeler, *Alexander the Great*

Browning, *Pheidippides*

Church, *A Young Macedonian*

Cowles, *Our Little Athenian Cousin*

Cowles, *Our Little Macedonian Cousin*

Davis, *The Victor of Salamis*

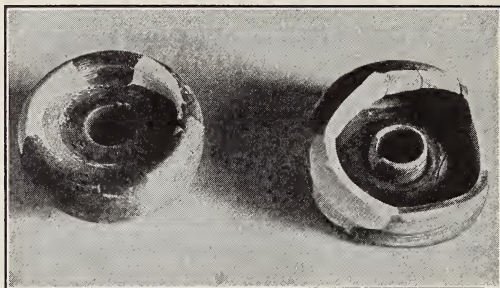
Lamprey, *Children of Ancient Greece*

Perkins, *The Spartan Twins*

Snedeker, *The Coward of Thermopylae*

Snedeker, *Theras and His Town*

Snedeker, *The Spartan*



ANCIENT INKWELLS

From the ruins of the ancient city of Corinth have been taken many articles that suggest that "modern" ideas may not be so modern after all. When these inkwells were tipped over, the ink did not run out on the table on which they stood.



A PAINTER'S CONCEPTION OF A FAMOUS ROMAN LEGEND

No myth or legend has been more widely recounted than that of Romulus and Remus and the wolf.

IV. HOW ROME FORWARDED CIVILIZATION

This city has reared her head as high among all other cities as cypresses oft do among the bending osiers. — VIRGIL

Every one soon or late comes round by Rome.

— BROWNING

Now let us go back to the beginnings of another nation of ancient times and trace its rise and fall and its influence upon our own world. History is not made by one nation doing all it is ever going to do and then another nation starting up and running the world for a while. There was a Rome before Athens amounted to anything, but neither city at that time knew much about the ancient world as a whole. Through Rome many of the contributions of other peoples were saved for later times, but Rome also added others of her own.

Pointers for Our Study:

What do we know about Rome and the Romans in their early days?

How did Rome spread its authority first over Italy and then over the whole Mediterranean world?

How did Rome and its government change as a result of this expansion and conquest?

What causes contributed to the downfall of the Roman Empire?

In how many ways did Rome serve the world of its day and of later days?

63. What Geography Meant to Italy. — Of all the things that seem obvious as one looks at a map of the Mediterranean world, nothing is more so than the “boot” which represents Italy. Since it reaches south from the mainland of Europe about midway from east to west of the Mediterranean Sea, a great power which established itself in Italy might rather easily spread south, east, or west. The island of Sicily, somewhat like a football in front of the toe of the boot, has also been thought of as a stepping stone between Italy and Africa. The two good-sized islands northwest of Sicily — Corsica and Sardinia — figured in ancient Roman history in only a minor way.

The Italian peninsula is about 700 miles long and 100 miles wide, but Italy is much wider in the valley of the Po. The peninsula is shut off from the rest of the continent of Europe by the Alps, which for a long time helped to protect the people of Italy from invaders from the north. The Ap’ennines start in the north on the western side of the peninsula, swing down through the peninsula toward the eastern side, and then turn to the toe of the boot. This range divided Italy into an eastern and western part, but it did not break up the country into little separate sections as did the mountains of Greece. Italy has but one really big river — the Po.

Italy had far more plains and other fertile lands than did Greece. Italians raised many cattle and grew grapes, olives, grain, and numerous vegetables. Although Italy had a good supply of marble, it never produced, in ancient times, artists and sculptors to use it as did Greece.

It has been said that Greece and Italy turn their backs to each other. On the eastern coast, Italy has hardly any harbors. The southern part of the peninsula was much more attractive to settlers, and, as we know, Greeks came to live there at an early date. Here, indeed, was Magna Grae’cia. The western coast had more harbors than the eastern, though not an overabundance. Trade was developed early with Carthage and Spain, and with Gaul, as France used to be called. (See the time-graphs on pages 49, 50.)

Observe the facts mentioned above, and other noteworthy items, as shown on the map facing this page. In what latitudes are Italy and Greece compared with the eastern coast of the United States? Are the natural conditions — climate, soil, etc. — similar or different in the three



regions? Today Italy is handicapped industrially by having virtually no coal within its borders. Why did that fact not count for more in ancient times?

64. The Early Peoples of Italy. — In early Italy dwelt a variety of peoples. Those who in ancient times were called Italians occupied the central part of the peninsula, from north to south, and also considerable of the eastern side. Very likely they were related to other ancient Indo-European peoples, since their languages had a number of features in common. West of the mountains in the lower lands were the Latins. From their number came the people who first occupied the site of Rome. On the western side of the peninsula, north of the river Tiber, were a somewhat mysterious people known as the Etruscans (their country is called Tuscany today). Since they knew how to use the arch in building and practiced certain religious rites like those of some Near Eastern people, some think they came from the Near East. They built attractive houses and tombs and made beautiful vases. From them the Romans took the custom of trying to foretell events by watching the flight of birds or looking at the entrails of animals offered for sacrifice. These Etruscans had a written language, but nobody today can translate it. (Time-graph, page 59.)

Foretelling events as the Etruscans did is sometimes called "divination." How do you suppose that word originated?

The Greek inhabitants of the south had on the whole the most advanced civilization in the Italian peninsula. They kept constantly in communication with other Greek cities and with Egypt, and had about everything that Greeks had anywhere.

The separation of the peoples of early Italy from one another reminds us of conditions in Greece; but there was a big difference. In time one small group — the Romans — made themselves masters, first of their neighbors and then of the entire peninsula; no Greek city was able to do that. After uniting Italy, Rome kept on with its conquests until it ruled over an empire greater even than Alexander's. If you have not already done so, refer back to the time-chart at the top of pages 7 and 8 to see how the story of Rome fits into the making of today's world. You see a drawing of the famous bronze statue of the wolf feeding the two boys, Romulus and Remus. Then later Rome's soldiers carry her

name and power to many lands. Romans also built massive structures such as the great amusement place called the Colosseum, and basilicas, or law courts.

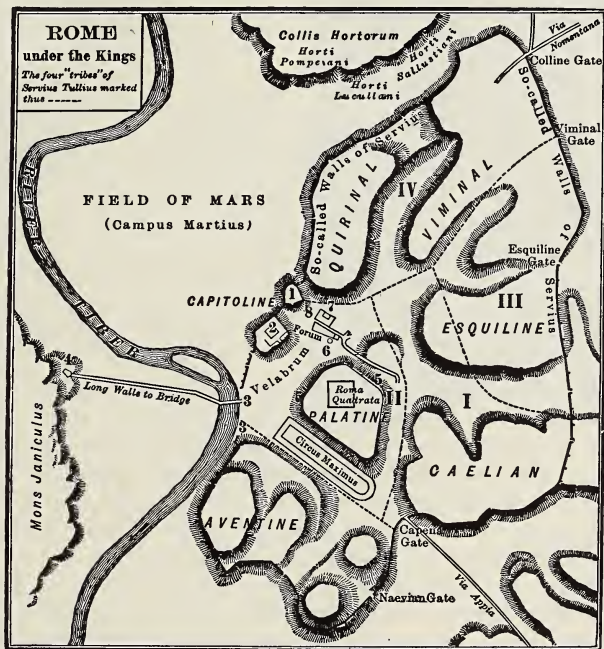
65. Legends and Probabilities about Early Rome. — At the height of Rome's glory the poet Virgil imitated Homer by writing a long epic, the *Aeneid* (ē-nē'id), about the people whom the Romans believed to be their distant ancestors. This poem tells about the travels of the Trojan Aenē'as from Troy, after it was destroyed, to Carthage, and then to Italy, where he finally settled. His descendants were supposed to be the first Romans. The Roman historian Liv'y also wrote in considerable detail the traditions and legends of the early days of Rome. Famous among them is the story of the two brothers, Rom'ulus and Rē'mus, who were rescued and nourished by a wolf after their uncle had cast them out to die. Romulus, it was said, became the founder of Rome, and the Romans believed that happened in what we call 753 B.C. No historian, however, considers accurate any dates in Roman history earlier than the middle of the fourth century B.C. (See the time-graphs on pages 50 and 54.)

Legends also tell us that from 753 B.C. to 509 B.C. Rome had seven kings, counting Romulus as the first. The building of the wall around the city by King Servius Tullius, the tale of Horā'tius at the bridge, and the story of the sale of the Sib'ylline Books, which the Romans later consulted to learn the future, are well-known stories from this period of the kings, which you may or may not believe. A rebellion against the last king caused the setting up of a republic.

The English poet Macaulay has written some lively verse under the title *Lays of Ancient Rome*. Read some of these. How did the Romans use A. U. C.? What corresponding event do we find in Greek history?

Rome's location is famous. From twelve to fourteen miles inland from the mouth of the Tiber was a group of seven hills — not very high, but high enough to help the people who lived there defend themselves against their neighbors. Thus Rome got its nickname, "the city of the seven hills." Probably it was built first on two or three of them and then expanded to cover the rest of the seven and still more. Below three of these hills is a piece of level ground which leads to a ford across the Ti'ber. To this

place, later known as the Fo'rum, people from miles around came to trade. The inland location of Rome saved it from attacks by pirates, which kept many a seacoast town awake nights. Moreover, its position in Italy was near the center from north to south,



1. Citadel (Arx).
2. Temple of Jupiter (Capitolinus).
3. "Quays of the Tarquins."
4. Citadel at Janiculum.
5. "Wall of Romulus."
6. Temple of Vesta.
7. Senate House (Curia).
8. Comitium.

A few later features of the city are also shown.

and thus it could easily spread its authority over its neighbors when it grew strong enough.

66. The Life and Qualities of the Early Romans. — The early Romans appear to have been a matter-of-fact, practical kind of people. They were mostly farmers and cattle-raisers and, since they had little trade with the outside world, had to produce them-

selves most of the things they needed. At one time the Romans seem to have used cattle as a sort of money. On some of their first real coins was the representation of an ox or cow.¹

The average early Roman was strong-willed and strong-bodied. He was temperate in most things, neither eating nor drinking to excess. Later some of his praiseworthy qualities decayed or disappeared.

Early Roman life centered in the family. The father (*pater familias*) was an absolute monarch in his home. He even had the right to put to death any disobedient members of his family. Married sons had no property rights so long as the father lived. When a girl married, she became a member of her husband's family and practically cut off her relationship with her own family. A woman in a Roman family, though she was expected to obey her husband, occupied a much more prominent place than one in an Athenian family. She had the right to appear in public, call on her friends, and counsel with her husband on questions of family or general interest.

The father was also a kind of high priest for the family. The Romans believed that the spirits of their ancestors hovered around the fireplace, and a Roman father looked forward to the time when he would be revered as his own ancestors were. Each household had its *lā'res* and *penā'tes*, or household gods. The *lares* looked after special places, such as dwellings, fields, or roads, and the *penates* watched over the cupboards and storerooms.

After the death of a father, his sons naturally became the heads of their own families. A group of families related by birth continued to think of themselves as closely associated and were known as a *gens*, or clan. Several gentes formed a *curia*, which was a sort of political unit in early Rome as well as a social relationship.

Does simple living usually mean moral living? What merits or demerits do you see in the authority possessed by the father in a Roman family? Do you think the simplicity of early Romans was the result of their having to depend on themselves?

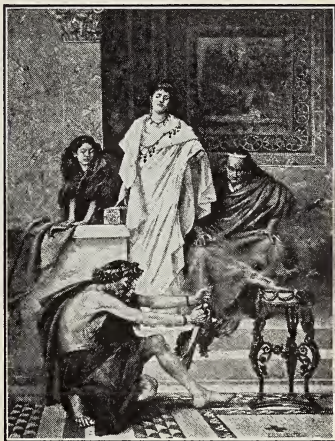
67. Roman Divinities and Their Worship.—Though the Romans were not so imaginative as the Greeks, they too had many

¹ Our word *pecuniary*, and the Latin word *pecunia*, meaning "money," were derived from the Latin *pecus*, meaning "herd."

divinities. Some of the Greek deities were taken over by the Romans after they became acquainted with the Greeks, so that Roman mythology, as we read it today, is a combination of Greek and Roman stories. *Jupiter*, *Juno*, *Venus*, *Neptune*, *Mercury*, *Mars*—all corresponded closely to Greek divinities.

Some divinities the Romans emphasized much more than did the Greeks. Mars, the god of War, supposed to be the father of Romulus, figured highly among them. An important divinity whom the Greeks did not know was *Jā'nus*, a two-faced god, who looked into both the past and the future. He was therefore a protector of doorways.¹ We have him commemorated in our month of January, though that month did not begin the year for the Romans. Their first month was March, the month of Mars. *Vesta*, the goddess of the hearth, also stood high among the Romans.

Six Vestal Virgins had as their sole duty keeping the holy fire burning in the temple of Vesta. *Sat'urn*, the god of sowing, and *Cē'rēs*, the goddess of grain (notice our word *cereal*), naturally would be respected by a farming people. When Romans offered sacrifices or carried out some vow, they expected that the gods were bound as much as they were. Sometimes, even, they appear to have tried "to put something over" on their gods by adhering to the strict letter of certain arrangements while not carrying out the spirit of them.



From a painting by Edwin H. Blashfield

A ROMAN AUGUR

By the appearance of the body of the fowl he is killing, the man will undertake to prophesy about some matter of interest to the family in whose presence the scene is being enacted. The surroundings indicate that such practices took place even in refined and well-to-do families.

¹ The gates of the temple of Janus were always kept open when war was going on somewhere in the Roman dominions, but closed in time of peace. In one period of 500 years, they were closed just once.

The Romans undertook to foretell events by "taking the auspices" and observing omens. There was a "college of augurs," whose duty was to look into the entrails of animals killed for sacrifice and judge from the condition of them whether the signs were favorable or unfavorable for doing something that was under consideration. They also foretold events by watching the flight of birds. A comet in the sky, an eclipse, or a clap of thunder at a critical time, were all looked upon as signifying something with reference to the will of the gods.

Do you see any inconsistency between what has been said about Roman religious practices and the statement that they were a plain, matter-of-fact people? What opportunities for dishonesty did the priests and augurs have?

68. How Early Rome Was Governed. — Early Rome with its surrounding country was more or less like a Greek city-state. About 509 B.C. when a *republic* was established, this word, so common to us today, appeared in history for the first time. It comes from the Latin *res publica*, meaning "public thing" or "public business."

At the head of the republic were two officials known as *cōn'suls*, who served somewhat as checks upon each other. In times of special danger, a *dictator* could be appointed whose term was only six months, but who during that time had absolute power in the state. Other offices were established from time to time.

Quaestors were treasurers; *praetors* were judges or magistrates; *aediles* had charge of public works, such as constructing roads and buildings. *Censors* counted the people every five years and also classified the citizens in accordance with rank, financially or otherwise. *Tribunes* had the right to veto the action of any officer of the government, even of the consuls themselves (*veto* in Latin means "I forbid"). There were finally ten tribunes. *Lictors* carried the *fascēs*, the bundle of sticks with an ax in it, which symbolized Roman authority. (*Fascisti* (fashē'stē) means what today?)

While there were still kings, and long afterward, the *Senate* had an important place in the government. Its name is related to the Latin *senex*, "old man," and it probably was composed of the chiefs of the 300 clans, or *gentes*, into which the community was divided at one stage. The Senate was responsible for most dealings with foreign countries, and it had much to say about spending

money. It proposed appointments to offices and submitted laws for the popular assemblies to vote on. On banners or other symbols of Roman authority you will often see these letters, SPQR, meaning in Latin "Senā'tus Populus'que Romā'nus," and in English, "the Roman Senate and People." (See the picture on page 155.)

At one time or another there were three different assemblies, but in them there was no general discussion of public questions as there was in Athens. Originally the king and later the consuls or the Senate could present proposals to an assembly, and the assembly merely accepted or rejected them. Neither Rome nor Athens was keen enough to devise any system of *representation* for law-making.

The earliest assembly, the *comitia curia'ta*, included only those who belonged to the original families. As other elements of the people began to get political rights, this assembly passed out of the picture. The *comitia centuria'ta* was based on the "centuries," or companies of a hundred men, into which the army was organized. The *comitia tribu'ta* was based on the division of the people in tribes in accordance with the part of the community where they lived—somewhat like the wards of a modern city. The *comitia tributa* finally became the chief popular assembly.

Compare the Senate of the United States with the Roman senate in regard to powers and influence in the nation. How do we use the word "censor" today? Do the two consuls in Rome suggest any corresponding officers in any Greek city?

69. The Struggle between Patricians and Plebeians. — Almost from the beginning of the republic there was discord between two distinct social groups among the inhabitants. The descendants of the original Roman families were known as *patrī'cians* — a word which might be translated "those who had fathers" or ancestors



A ROMAN COIN

This was made early in the first century B. C. It bears on one side the name of a Consul, Quintus Pompeius Rufus. On the other side the name of Sulla and also Pompeius appears. On both sides we see the "curule," or official, chair.

They at first had all the political power, and it is not surprising that they held on to it as long as they could. All officeholders were patricians, and none but patricians could vote in the assembly.

The other — and soon the more numerous — element of the people was known as the *plebē'ians* (*plebs*), or common people. They included or were descended from people who were conquered in war, traders who settled in or near Rome, or laborers and others who had come to Rome for their own reasons. Not only farmers but some successful merchants belonged in this class. Rome was almost constantly fighting somebody, and the plebeians had to furnish more than half the men to fight. Considering their importance to Rome, can you blame them for thinking that they should have some voice in the government?

At a time when Rome was in danger from some of her enemies, the plebeians announced that they were going to leave Rome and build a city of their own. Scared, the patricians agreed that if the plebeians would stay, they would consent to the establishment of "tribunes" who could protect the plebeians by vetoing an unfair act of any official. The persons who held the office were made "sacred," so that they would dare to be fearless in guarding the rights of the plebeians.

How do we use the word "tribune" today? What did Andrew Jackson's friends mean when they called him "the tribune of the American people"? Do you blame the plebeians for threatening to leave Rome when the city was in danger? Have other cities or countries had "patricians" and "plebeians"? Does the veto power of these tribunes suggest any of the "checks and balances" in our own system of government?

Next the plebeians demanded that the laws be put down in writing. After considerable holding back on the part of the patricians, it was agreed that ten men, the *decem'virs*, should be authorized to draw up a code of laws (about 451 B.C.) This they did, after considering customs that prevailed in Rome and laws in force in the Greek cities of southern Italy. The laws were carved on bronze tablets and put up in the Forum where people could read them, and became known as the "Twelve Tables." They applied to patricians and plebeians alike. Every Roman boy learned the Twelve Tables as a part of his schooling. (Refer to the time-graph on page 93.)

What events in the history of Athens correspond to the drawing up of the Twelve Tables in Rome? Do you think it is harder or easier for us to know our laws than it was for Romans to know theirs?

After a time laws were passed which provided that at least one of the consuls must be a plebeian and made other arrangements intended to reduce the special privileges of the patricians. Finally it was agreed that the *comitia tributa*, which was presided over by the tribunes and which the plebeians controlled, could make decisions binding upon everybody. Since by this time plebeians were allowed to marry into patrician families, the strife between these two classes was practically ended.

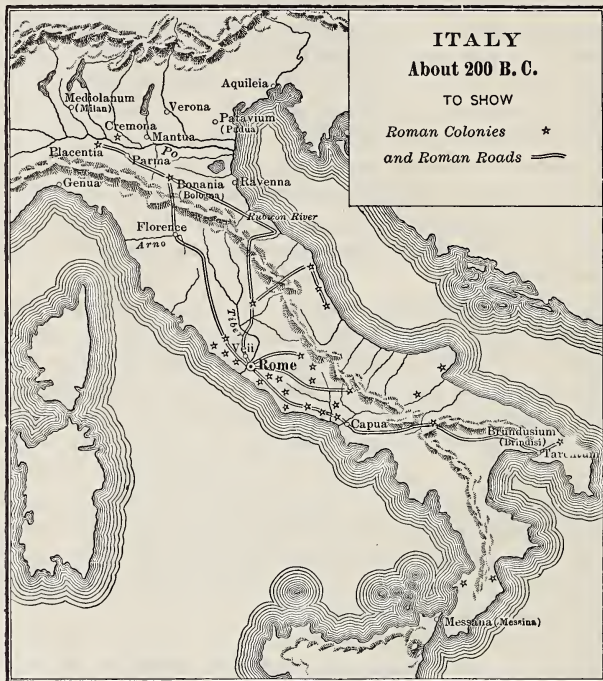
Do you suppose there ever was a time in the history of any country when there was perfect contentment between those who were rich and those who were not?

70. How Rome Became Mistress of Italy. — Rome's expansion over Italy required more than 200 years after Rome became a republic. In fact it was nearly that long before she even brought all her immediate neighbors under her rule. During this period she suffered one terrible disaster. About 390 B.C. an army of Gauls, who had come into Italy from beyond the Alps, marched down upon Rome, capturing and plundering the city. They were finally driven back into the valley of the Po, but the capture of Rome by these Gauls was one of the events in the early history of the Romans which gave them bitter memories. Northern Italy continued to be occupied by Gauls and became known as *Cisal'pine Gaul* ("Gaul this side of the Alps").

Just a little before Alexander the Great appeared on the scene as the boy king of Macedonia, Rome succeeded in establishing her supremacy over the "Latin" tribes in the central and north-central parts of the Italian peninsula (338 B.C.). Next she looked covetously on *Campā'nia*, the rich plain to the south of her, and took it, after a series of wars with the Samnites, a near-by mountain tribe who also wanted Campania. (Refer to the time-graphs on pages 109 and 113.)

Now there remained in the Italian peninsula outside of Roman authority only the Greek cities of the south, the strongest of which was *Taren'tum*. In violation of a treaty, Roman ships sailed into the harbor of *Tarentum*, and in anger the people of

Tarentum destroyed some of the Roman ships (282 B.C.). Rome took this as an excuse for an attack upon Tarentum,¹ and finally forced the Greek cities to accept Roman authority. By 265 B.C.



Rome had changed from a country village on the Tiber to mistress of Italy from Etruria on the north to the sea on the south.

Refer to the map facing page 132, as well as to the one above to verify the locations mentioned in this section and the following one.

¹ Tarentum in turn asked help from King Pyr'rus, of Epirus, the best general produced in Greece after the time of Alexander. He came over into Italy with a good-sized army and some elephants trained to take part in battle. He won some victories, but suffered such heavy losses that he really gained nothing by them; so to this day a "pyrrhic victory" is one which is secured at such cost that it really is not a victory at all. The Romans finally defeated Pyrrhus, and he went back home.

Do you consider the Romans entirely honorable in their dealings with other peoples? Several interesting stories are connected with the events summarized in this section. Look up some of them, such as "How the geese saved Rome," "The story of Camillus," "How a Roman army had to go under the yoke."

71. How Rome Ruled Italy. — Rome used rather good judgment in handling the people whom she brought under her sway. "*Divide* (di-wē'dě) *et im'pera*" — "Divide and rule" — was her theory. Each defeated foe had to make a separate treaty with Rome, and Rome treated each community in the way that she thought would do herself the most good.

One wise practice which Rome often followed was granting full or partial citizenship to people of communities that came under her control. This, in theory, was a valuable possession. A citizen could claim the protection of Roman law and government, and could marry into the family of a Roman citizen; but if he had the right to vote, it meant nothing unless he could get to Rome when assemblies were meeting. Perhaps you recall how the Apostle Paul, in the New Testament story, made use of his Roman citizenship.

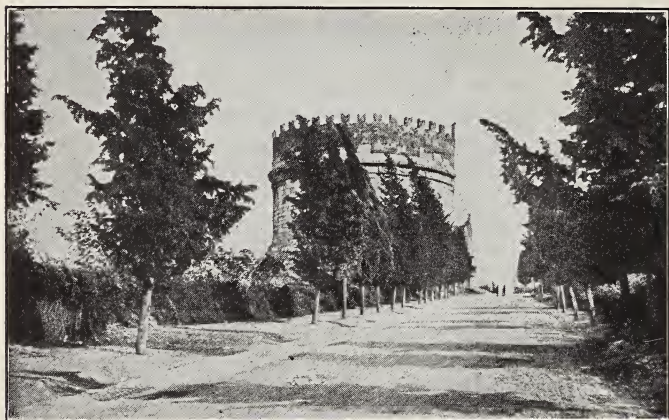
Some towns conquered by Rome were really made a part of the Roman state and their people were given full rights of citizenship. Others were treated as *allies*. They were not allowed to make treaties with one another or to have anything to do with foreign countries, but in other respects they were free to govern themselves. Rome established colonies in different parts of Italy. Some of them were really military posts set up to maintain her authority in a certain neighborhood. Other places were usually made up of worn-out soldiers or poor plebeians sent out to start life over again in a new neighborhood. The people of the colonies spoke Latin, and each town had its temple, its sacred fireplace, and its forum, just as the home city had.

Has the United States in governing its island possessions established exactly the same kind of government over all of them? Is it wrong for a country having colonies to provide different policies of government for different colonies?

Rome also brought Italy together by making trade easy between Rome and the distant parts of the peninsula. Her policy was

to make Rome a center for trade and authority for all of Italy. Roads were built in the first place for soldiers to travel on, but they became avenues for commerce, and, for rich Romans, for travel and sight-seeing. "All roads lead to Rome," was a famous saying. (Map, page 142.)

The Romans showed surpassing engineering skill in building these roads. Traces of them can still be seen. Roman engineers tunneled hills, built bridges over streams, and established easy



THE APPIAN WAY

This is a modern view of the famous road from Rome to Capua, the first to be constructed by the ancient Roman republic. The circular building is a tomb.

grades. They made the roads as straight as possible, and at regular intervals set up posts marking the number of miles to Rome. The first really long road in Italy was started in 312 B.C. — the famous Appian Way, from Rome to Cap'ua.

From what you have observed of recently built concrete roads, do you imagine they will last as did the Roman roads? Is traffic today harder on a road than it was in Roman times?

Fighting was another thing the early Romans could do well. Every citizen between 17 and 46, corresponding to what we today call military age, was obliged to serve when necessary. In early Rome they met on a plain outside the city known as *Campus*

Martius, or the Field of Mars. For a considerable time it was expected that a soldier would serve without pay, and furnish his own weapons, on the theory that it was an honor to serve Rome as a soldier. Julius Caesar at the middle of the first century B.C. paid his soldiers what would amount now to about $12\frac{1}{2}\text{¢}$ a day.

The smallest unit of military organization was the *century*, containing 100 men or less, commanded by a centurion. A legion contained about 4500 men, including both heavy-armed and light-armed foot-soldiers, and was accompanied by such other fighting men as bowmen, slingers, and horsemen. At one time during Rome's early days she had four legions, but there is no telling how many there were when her conquests expanded. The Roman legion was perhaps the most successful of all ancient military organizations. You may wonder, however, what would have happened in a battle between the Roman legion at its best and Alexander's phalanx.

The camp of a legion was laid out in regular lines or streets, with a wall of earth and a palisade around it. When an army was camped in one place for any length of time, that location sometimes became the foundation of a city or town. We see traces of the Roman word for camp, *castra*, in the names of towns in England and the United States, such as Chester, Rochester, and Manchester.

Do you see any likeness or difference between Rome and Sparta with reference to their military training or service? What do you think of the early Roman idea that a man should serve in the army without pay? Would soldiers of that type be better fighters than those who were paid for their service?

72. Carthage, Rome's Foremost Rival. — It is not likely that Rome deliberately set out to conquer the world; but after she was once started, neither mountains nor seas could stop her.

On the north coast of Africa, almost directly across from Italy, was the Phoenician settlement of Carthage, older than Rome itself. With her fine harbor Carthage had become the chief commercial city in the western Mediterranean. Her people boasted that the western Mediterranean was a Phoenician lake in which nobody could wash his hands without the consent of Carthage. They were successful traders and had prosperous markets and banks.

Carthaginians belonged to the Semitic branch of the white race. Their government was a republic, but an aristocratic one, controlled by the nobles and rich merchants.

Carthage had allies and kinsmen strung out all along the north African coast and even in Spain, and controlled Sardinia, Corsica, and much of Sicily. But the citizens of Carthage did not fight for her. Her troops were hired soldiers, who served for pay, not for patriotism. Rome was just the opposite. Citizen soldiers fought because they were willing and not because they made their living that way.

When Rome reached southern Italy and was ready to jump the strait to Sicily, the stage was being set for another struggle between different types of civilization. Carthage stood higher materially than Rome, but was on the down grade. Rome was still a little crude. As in the epoch-making strife between Persia and Greece, once more a rising civilization was going into a life-and-death struggle with one which had seen its best days — East vs. West again, with all that might mean! What would be the outcome?

Do you think men whose chief concern is getting rich are likely to make good soldiers? Do you know of any later cases when a government made use of hired soldiers? Was it inevitable that Rome and Carthage should come into conflict? Use the map following this page for the story of Rome vs. Carthage.

73. How Rome Subdued Carthage. — Rome fought three wars with Carthage, commonly called the Punic Wars. "Punic" is a form of the adjective "Phoenician" and of course applied to Carthage. The first war broke out in 264 B.C., when the Romans, under the pretext of helping some friends, crossed over into Sicily. The third one ended in 146 B.C. (Refer to the time-graph on page 113.)

Much of the fighting in the First Punic War (264–241 B.C.) was done on the sea. Here the Carthaginians shone for a while. They had a large fleet with well-built ships, not only triremes but quinqueremes — boats with five rows of oarsmen. Roman soldiers hardly knew what a warship looked like. But when a Carthaginian quinquereme was wrecked on the coast of Italy, the Romans proceeded to build ships like it by the dozen, and trained their soldiers on land in practicing the motions of rowing, so that they

could operate the ships when they were built. Finally, in 241, they beat the Carthaginians in a great battle.

When peace was arranged, the principal provisions were that Carthage had to withdraw from Sicily and make a heavy money payment to Rome. Very soon Rome helped herself to Sardinia and to Corsica, and conquered more territory in the Po Valley. Then during a breathing spell of about twenty years both sides prepared for another struggle.

Now we must tell about one of the most heroic characters of all history, one who was fighting a losing cause from the start, but who at the same time made his enemies fear his very name. This was Han'nibal, the son of the Carthaginian leader Hamil'car Barca. When Hannibal was only nine years old, his father made him take an oath of undying hatred to Rome. If Carthage and her people had shown half the devotion that this great family displayed, we might have a different story to tell.

Rome expected that the second war would be fought either in Spain or in Africa, but Hannibal had an entirely different idea. He was going to put Rome on the defensive and make her fight at home. With his soldiers, baggage wagons, camp equipment, and elephants, he crossed the Pyrenees and the plains of southern France, and then made his way over the Alps into the valley of the Po. Thus began another long war (218-201 B.C.).

Romans had never met a foe of such genius. Sixteen years he stayed in Italy, keeping the Romans guessing what he was going to do. Every time they risked a battle, they were disastrously defeated.¹ Time was the best ally of the Romans, for Hannibal's men could not be replaced as they died of illness or were killed in battle. The Romans found their best policy to be that adopted by Quintus Fabius Maximus, who served them as dictator. He would hinder the movements of Hannibal's troops all he could, but would keep out of a battle with them.

What do we mean when we speak of a "Fabian policy" today?

¹ The last real battle in Italy between Hannibal and the Romans took place at Can'nae in 216 B. C. It was one of the most awful slaughters in history. After it was over, the Carthaginians took from the battlefield a bushel basket of rings that had been worn by the Romans who had been killed; 70,000 Roman soldiers lost their lives.

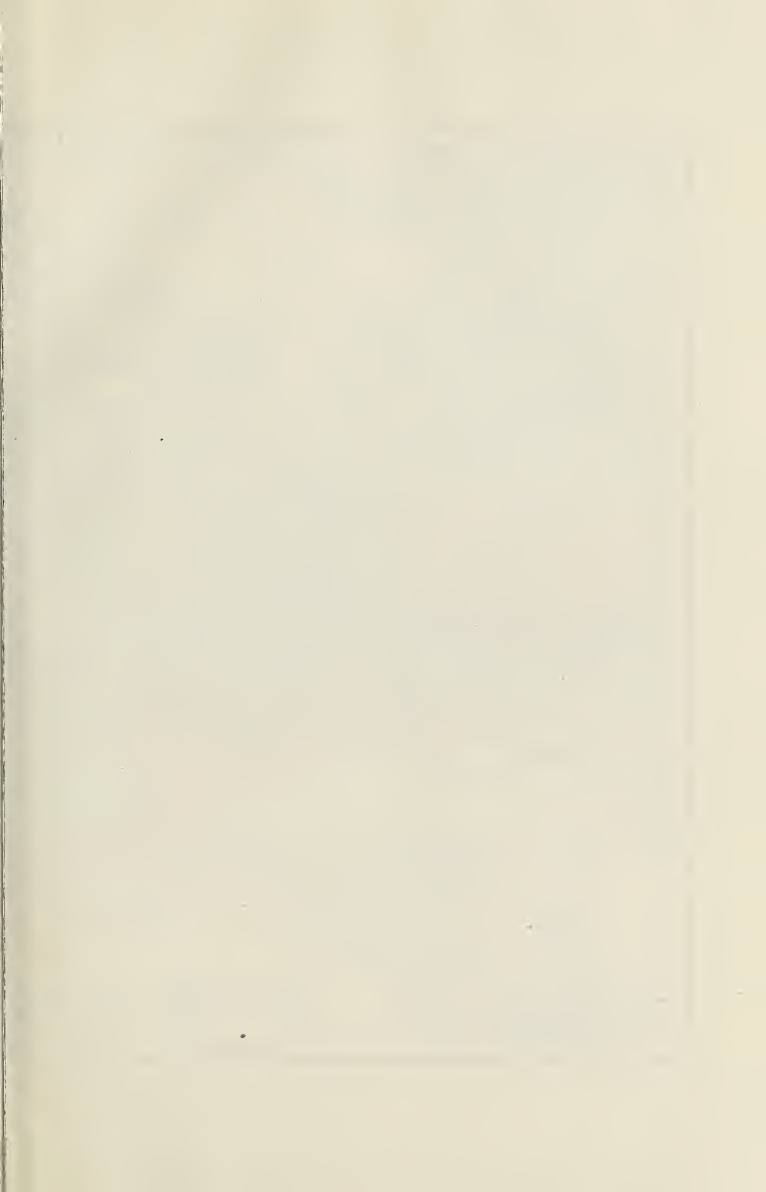
Hannibal hoped that his victories might induce cities which once Rome had conquered to desert Rome and come to his side; but only Syracuse and Capua did so. Hannibal could not defend them, and they were terribly punished by Rome. The selfish nobles in Carthage had given Hannibal little or no help; but finally a force under his brother, Has'drubal, followed the same route he had traversed and came over the Alps into northern Italy. The Romans killed Hasdrubal at the River Metaurus (207 B.C.) and cut his army to pieces. Then they cut off his head and had it thrown into Hannibal's camp. A few years later, the Roman general Scipio (sĭp'io) took an army over into northern Africa, and Hannibal was called back to defend Carthage. At the battle of Zama (202 B.C.) Hannibal was defeated for the only time in his life.

Then Carthage had to make peace (201 B.C.). The Roman terms were harsh. Carthage had to give up all her warships but ten, to turn over to Rome the province of Spain, to pay a big indemnity, and to promise that she would never make war without the consent of Rome. That was her death warrant, for Rome would not let her defend herself.

74. The Doom of Carthage. — Roman vengeance on Carthage was still unsatisfied. When, under Hannibal's leadership, the city showed some signs of reviving, Rome demanded that he be turned over to her authority. Hannibal knew what that meant and fled to Asia, where in 183 B.C. he took his own life rather than fall into Roman hands.

Nearly half a century after the close of the Second Punic War one of the leading characters in Rome was Cato the Censor. Every time he made a speech on any subject he ended it with, "Moreover, I believe that Carthage must be destroyed" — "*Delen'da est Carthā'go.*" Thus he hammered that idea into the heads of the Romans.

Now one of Carthage's neighbors became very annoying, and Carthage struck back at her. Then realizing that this was contrary to her treaty with Rome, Carthage offered to make amends. Romans liked to sneer at "Punic faith," as if the pledge of a Carthaginian was never to be depended upon. It would be hard to imagine anything more dishonorable, however, than Rome's treat-

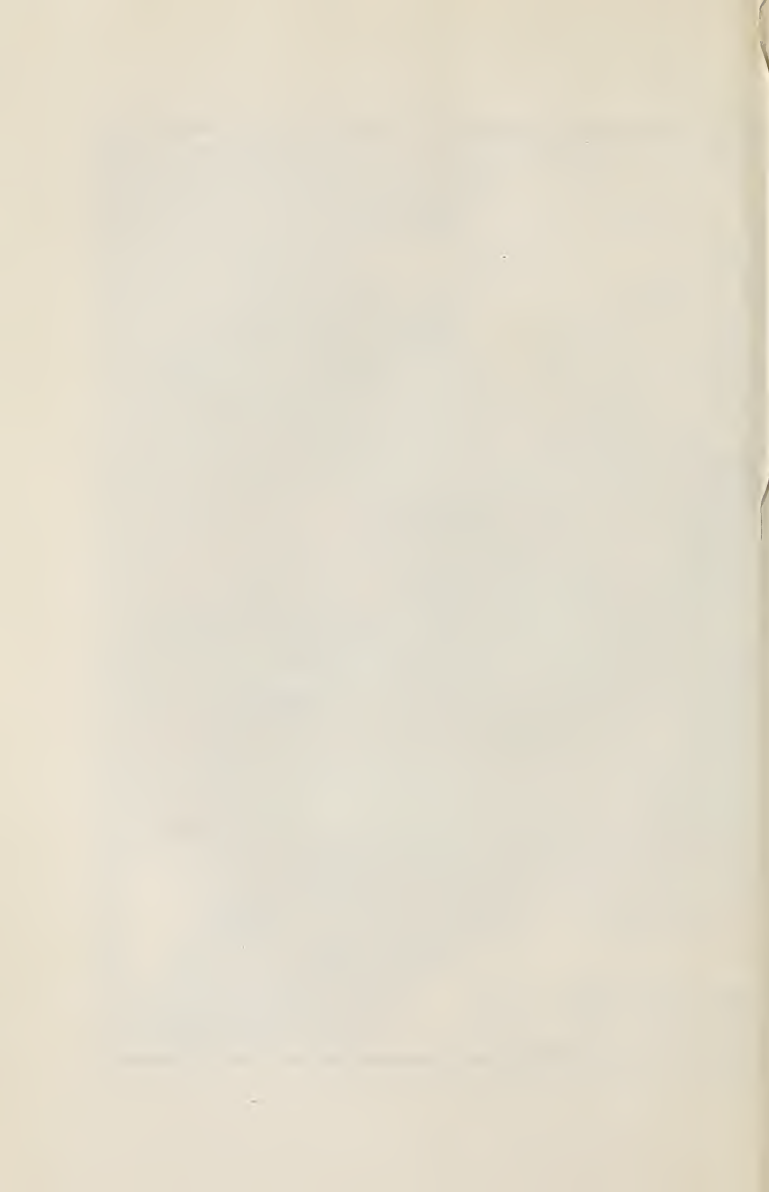






dom of the Seleucidae had
greater extent to the East
be shown on this map.

from 20 Greenwich 25 30 35



China makes conquests and extends trade to the West			
Parthian Empire becomes independent			
Romans defeat Philip V 197	Romans destroy Corinth and Carthage 146	Attempted reforms of the Gracchi 133-121	Marius defeats Germans 102, 101
200 B.C.	2ND CENTURY B.C.		101

ment of Carthage at this time. Carthage had to give up all her weapons of war. Then Rome commanded the Carthaginians to destroy their city entirely and never to rebuild it nearer than ten miles to the coast. The Carthaginians rose in desperation and held out for three years; but Rome conquered (146 B.C.). Carthage was destroyed; the ground was plowed over and sown with salt to symbolize the complete ruin of Rome's once proud rival.

Rome was now supreme in the western Mediterranean world. Her heartlessness makes us sympathize with the hero Hannibal in his brave but hopeless struggle. Yet there was something wrong with Carthage that she did not stand by her great general; and we can see now that if Carthage had won, it would have meant the victory of a system of government and society which had surely seen its best days.

Compare Alexander the Great and Hannibal. Which do you like the better? Could Rome have adopted a policy of "live and let live" as between herself and Carthage? Was Cato the Censor a real patriot or a narrow-minded bigot?

75. The Roman Eagles Go East and West. — During the period between the Second and Third Punic wars the Roman armies carried their standards east even to Asia. Philip V, King of Macedonia, had trouble with some of the Greek cities under his rule, and they appealed to Rome for help. Rome never missed a chance like this. She defeated Philip and obliged him to give up any claims he had to Greece and to withdraw from other territories he had conquered (197 B.C.). Thirty years later another

Macedonian king was defeated. Then Corinth, which had now risen to the chief place in Greece, felt the heavy hand of Rome, and in 146 B.C. was destroyed — the same year that brought doom to Carthage.

Next, the king of Pergamum, in Asia Minor, who had found it convenient to be a friend of Rome, willed his kingdom to Rome. At his death (133 B.C.) Roman rule came directly into Asia Minor. When the Punic wars broke out, Rome was one of five great Mediterranean nations — Rome, Carthage, Macedonia, Syria, and Egypt. When the Punic wars ended, only Syria and Egypt were still independent, and one could easily guess what their fate would be sooner or later.

Rome had perhaps more trouble extending her authority over Spain, as she moved west, than she had when she moved eastward. The Spaniards were of a different race and language and did not want Roman rule and language forced upon them. But by the year 133 B.C. — the same year that Pergamum became a Roman province — Rome's authority in Spain was established.

Can you imagine why the king of Pergamum willed Rome his kingdom? Why do you suppose Rome wiped Corinth out of existence? Do you see any comparison or contrast between Rome's expansion over the Mediterranean world and the westward expansion of the United States to the Pacific Ocean? Recall Alexander's empire and what happened to it as you look at the map following page 146, which shows the regions over which Roman authority was spreading.

76. Rome and Her Provinces. — When Rome got beyond the peninsula and had to govern provinces, whether near or distant, we see her methods of government at their worst. There was no attempt to invent any system to give a province representation at Rome, or even any voice in its own affairs. For each new province as it was acquired, from Sicily on, a governor was appointed by the Senate. Since these governors often had been consuls or praetors, they were called *proconsuls* or *propraetors*. The Senate fixed the amount of taxes that each province should pay, and then either expected the governor to get the money in any way possible, or "farmed out" the taxes at public auction to the highest bidder. He in turn would expect to get enough more to make "a good thing" out of it. At one time Sicily was

paying one-tenth of its total product every year to Rome. Hardly anybody could be more unpopular than the tax-collectors, known as *publicans*.

Even when a governor's administration of a province was a public scandal, nothing could be done to him until after his term expired. As a governor regularly held office for only a year, he might be expected to work fast during that time, though some governors held on longer. One notorious governor, Ver'res, of Sicily, bragged that in his first year he could secure all the plunder he needed for himself, in the second year for his friends, and in the third year for the judges who might try him. The Senate, which could have prevented this misgovernment of the provinces, had itself become corrupt and dishonest instead of being the body of wise old men it was in the early days.

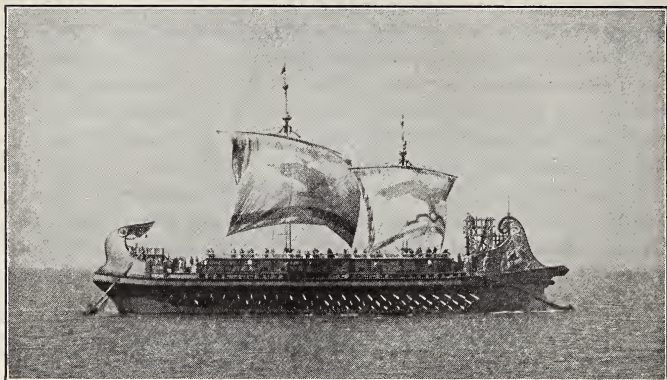
Rome's conquest of her provinces had unfortunate results to herself as well as to them. The plain, simple life of the early Romans disappeared. Two classes of people became notable — the excessively rich and the distressed poor. Those who acquired money through conquest or graft began to live luxuriously on fine estates, or villas, in the suburbs or elsewhere in Italy. They had gold and silver plates and fine tapestries in their houses, and many slaves to do their work.

Rome's poor people became poorer. So much grain was brought in from the provinces that the price in Rome went down below what it cost to raise wheat in Italy. Poor farmers could not make a living and sold their farms, often at auction, to the new rich men, and flocked into the city. The new owners used these farms to raise sheep or grapes. This kind of agriculture required fewer workers than before and caused still more jobless to flock to the city, where they were crowded into tenements three or four stories high.

When men are idle for a long time, they get the habit of loafing and may expect the government to feed them. The Roman "mob," as it came to be called, soon learned that politicians were willing to feed them out of the public treasury in order to get their votes. Such politicians, or generals who won victories and brought their soldiers back to Italy, came to be the only ones who could get anywhere in politics. By the time Rome had ruined her two

great rivals, Carthage and Corinth (146 B.C.), real popular government in Rome was practically at an end.

Without any particular intention on her part, Rome's conquests preserved some of the output of Greek genius. Roman generals, after plundering a Greek town, often carried some of its works of art to Rome. Wealthy Romans hired sculptors to copy Greek works, and thus preserved the ideas of Greek sculptors. Roman



A ROMAN WAR GALLEY

This particular galley is a very modern one, for it was used in making the moving picture *Ben Hur*; but it shows the general plan of construction of Roman war vessels.

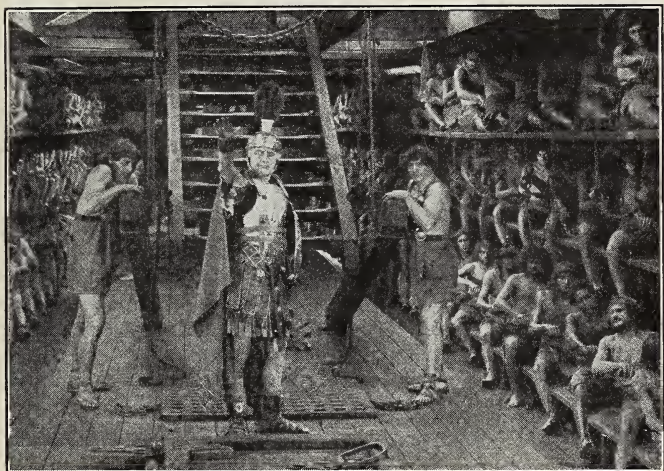
temples, too, followed the lines of Greek architecture. It became fashionable for those who were cultured, or liked to appear so, to speak Greek as well as their native Latin. So Greek moved westward as an international language, as it had moved eastward with Alexander.

Is there anything like an international language today? Could Rome have prevented the importing of grain from her provinces and the resulting ruin to Italian grain-growers? Do you see any parallel between the problem of Rome in feeding its jobless and conditions in our own time?

77. The Fate of Two Reformers. — A few men of sympathy and intelligence knew that things were going badly, and wanted to do something about it. Two such men were the brothers

Tibē'rius and Gā'ius Gracchus (grāk'us). Their mother, Cornelia, was the daughter of the Scipio who had defeated Hannibal.¹

Tiberius Gracchus was deeply touched by the plight of the poor people of Rome. "The wild beasts of Italy have their dens," he said, "but the brave men who spill their blood for her are without



INSIDE A WAR GALLEY

Notice the slaves who were forced to furnish the motive power for the galley, chained so that they cannot get away. There is one line of rowers on each side of the ship for each of the three banks of oars. This ship was obviously a trireme.

homes or habitations." He thought that they should be helped to start little farms of their own on public lands. The wealthy Romans who controlled these lands, however, did everything they could to block that program. Tiberius succeeded in getting himself elected to the office of tribune (133 B.C.) and at the end of his term, contrary to what had been the custom, he tried to have himself re-elected. His opponents accused him of violating the

¹ A friend of Cornelia was visiting her one day and displayed her rich and beautiful jewels. Cornelia brought in her two sons. "See," said Cornelia, "here are my jewels." For the fine sense of sympathy and charity which those boys showed when they grew up this mother may have deserved much credit.

constitution, and started riots in which he and a number of his followers were killed (131 B.C.).

A few years later Gaius Gracchus renewed the effort to improve the condition of the poor. He proposed that the government purchase grain and sell it to the poor for half price. His motives were fine; but the method was bad, for it made the poor people think that the government would do things for them even when they made no effort to help themselves. Gaius also wanted to settle poor people outside of Italy, and proposed to give full citizenship to all free inhabitants of Italy. Some of the poor then turned against him, for they selfishly did not want to share their citizenship with those who did not have it. So he was finally defeated when running for the office of tribune the third time, and then, pursued by his opponents, he fled from the city and had a slave kill him (121 B.C.).

What a shame! Here were two men sincerely anxious to improve the conditions of the people; yet in doing so they felt obliged to violate the customs and laws of the country and to propose measures in part unwise. Rome surely was in a bad way!

Why do you suppose the Roman populace did not want to extend citizenship to Italians who did not have it? Is it ever justifiable to break a law in order to do a good thing? Do you think that the plans of Tiberius Gracchus for distributing the poor people on public land would have worked out successfully if they could have been put into operation? Do we have any "back to the land" movement today? Do you see any other conditions today like those in Rome in the time of the Gracchi?

78. Marius vs. Sulla. — For nearly a century after the death of Gaius Gracchus the story of Rome is chiefly a story of rivalries of generals and politicians. Some represented the Senate, which now had become controlled by the nobles and stood solidly against any attempts to promote the welfare of the masses; others claimed to be working for the good of the people.

One of the latter was Gaius Mā'rius, who, when we first hear of him, seemed to be one of the few honest men in public life. He made himself a hero by defeating Jugur'tha, a chieftain of northern Africa, and was given the customary big parade which the Romans called a *triumph*. In a great procession marched the captives whom he brought with him; wagons loaded high with plunder followed.

Now Germanic tribes from the north of Italy, the Cim'bri and Teu'tonēs, decided to come across the Alps and settle in the warmer climate of Italy. This was really the first invasion of Germans from the north, who five and six centuries later poured south in vast hordes and overran the entire dominions of Rome. Marius, sent north to meet the invaders, routed them in two great



A ROMAN TRIUMPH

The victorious general leads his soldiers, in full battle equipment, with the standard of his particular army or division.

battles and forced them back into Gaul (102, 101 B.C.). Now the Romans gave him the title of "savior of Rome."

Are victorious generals always likely to be popular?

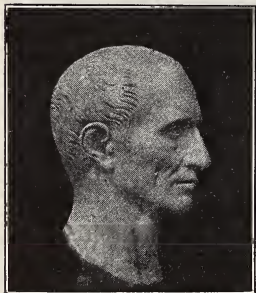
The Senate was jealous of Marius because he belonged to the popular party. Its champion, Lucius Cornelius Sulla, was a good general, too. He helped suppress a revolt of Rome's so-called "Italian allies," and the Senate then chose him to lead an expedition against Mithridā'tēs, King of Pontus, in Asia Minor. The assembly gave Marius this command; then for the first time in history Roman soldiers, some supporting him and some Sulla, fought against one another in Rome. Marius was defeated.

While Sulla was away attending to Mithridates, Marius started another civil war, in which several leaders of the aristocratic party

were killed. Sulla then came back and took bloody vengeance on the followers of Marius, who by this time was dead. Lists of "proscriptions" were posted in public, and any man whose name appeared on them might be killed by anyone.¹ Sulla then had himself proclaimed perpetual dictator, but retired a few years later (78 B.C.), and died in debauchery, as Marius had.

Were these years of strife between Marius and Sulla really civil war? Had the mass of the people become so indifferent about political matters that they didn't care what was happening to their government?

79. The First Triumvirate. — Soon after Marius and Sulla passed off the stage, three new figures came on — Cnaeus Pom'pey, Julius Caesar, and Marcus Cras'sus. Pompey, a general, had a number of accomplishments to make him popular. He put down a rebellion in Spain and aided in suppressing a revolt of gladiators in Italy — husky slaves who were trained to fight each other or wild beasts to amuse the public. Then Pompey was given command of an undertaking to rid the Mediterranean Sea of pirates and to make it safe for commerce. This he did in ninety days.



JULIUS CAESAR

This bust is now in the British Museum.

Next Pompey went to the East and finished up affairs with Mithridates — Sulla had defeated him but did not get rid of him. Pompey's success established Roman rule firmly in the region south of the Black Sea. Then he moved south and took possession of Syria and Palestine (63 B.C.). This action gave Rome command of the whole eastern end of the Mediterranean Sea.

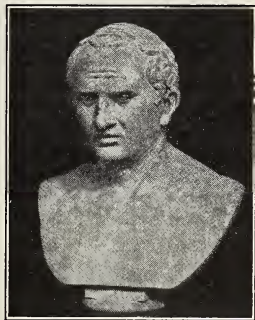
When, on his return, Pompey did not get the recognition he

¹ Anyone with political influence could have the name of an enemy put on these lists. One wealthy Roman, reading a list, exclaimed, "Alas, my villa has proved my ruin!" Some covetous person wanted it and succeeded in getting the owner "proscribed" to permit him to succeed in his wicked desire. The name of one young man, Julius Caesar, a relative of Marius, appeared on one of the lists. Though friends persuaded Sulla to remove the name, Sulla remarked, "There is many a Marius in that young man."

believed he deserved, he allied himself with Caesar and Crassus in what was known as the *First Triumvirate* — a political ring of three ambitious men (60 B.C.). Julius Caesar, born about 100 B.C., was connected with the popular party and in favor with the people at large. He had a nice little private fortune which he spent freely, buying votes and giving banquets and free shows. Everybody knew Julius Caesar. He was ambitious, hard working, and a good "mixer." Crassus lacked the leadership and popularity of the other two, but he had money which he had made out of contracts for the government. He was willing to pay the bills for the Triumvirate in the hope that through his wealth, Caesar's popularity, and Pompey's reputation as a general he would gain office. As long as this Triumvirate could hold together, it could get anything it wanted from the people.

An imaginary address of Spar'tacus, the leader of the rebellious gladiators, used to be a favorite school declamation. Read it for an idea of his motives and purposes. Do politicians today do any of the things that the members of this Triumvirate did?

Don't forget to use the maps (the one following page 168, for example), as you study about Pompey and Caesar.



CICERO

80. Cicero's Service to Rome. — During this troubled period Rome benefited from the services of Marcus Tullius Cicero (sis'ero). Though he thought pretty well of himself, he sincerely wished the best things for Rome — and we cannot say that of many prominent people during that time. He promoted the law which gave Pompey his successful command in the East. He showed up the disgraceful conduct of Verres, governor of Sicily. He wrote essays on various subjects. If you should go very far in the study of Latin, you would read some of his orations and discover that he deserved to be called "the Roman Demosthenes."

There is reason to believe that some of the busts of famous Roman leaders and emperors represent them somewhat as they actually looked.

His greatest achievement was the thwarting of the conspiracy of Cat'iline, one of the senators, who wanted to make himself master of Rome. Cicero, who was then consul, publicly accused Catiline of this plot in a speech before the Senate (63 B.C.), and so completely upset the conspiracy that Catiline fled from Rome and later was killed in battle. Cicero was hailed by the Romans as the father of his country, only to have them forget all about it within a few years. At first he was a great admirer of Julius Caesar; but when he thought that Caesar was going to do away with the republic which was so dear to him, he could not reconcile himself to the idea. After Caesar's death, Cicero was murdered for having opposed the schemes of Mark An'tony, who tried to get into power in Rome as the successor of Caesar.

After a country had been through such experiences as those with Marius and Sulla, do you think there was any chance for its government to return to that of an "honest-to-goodness" republic? Was Cicero wrong in holding to a belief in the republic when every tendency was working the other way?

81. Caesar's Military Achievements. — When Caesar had spent most of his money, he concluded that if he wanted to keep on being popular he would have to make a military record and have an army to back him. So after the First Triumvirate was formed, Caesar had himself assigned as proconsul in Gaul. That gave him his army, for he had to have one to conquer Gaul. Gaul then included modern France, Belgium, and part of Switzerland, not counting Cisal'pine Gaul, which today is in northern Italy. In a few years (58 to 51 B.C.) Caesar successfully established Roman authority in Gaul, introducing the Latin language, Roman customs, and Roman government. He even built a bridge over the Rhine into Germany, and twice crossed over to Britain, but did not stay long enough to bring either under Roman rule. Caesar wrote a rather accurate account of his accomplishments in Gaul and Britain — *De Bello Gallico*, as you have already discovered if you have taken more than one year of Latin.

The Triumvirate ended when Crassus was killed while trying to conquer the Parthians, in Asia. While Caesar was away in Gaul, Pompey was making himself popular by giving grain and free amusements to the people in Rome. Finally Pompey per-

sualed the Senate to order Caesar to lay down his command in Gaul and come to Rome as a private citizen. Caesar knew that if he did this, it would be the end of his ambitions, and probably of himself. He came, but brought his army with him.¹

In fear Pompey fled to Greece. Caesar with his soldiers went after him and defeated him in battle (at Pharsā'lus, 48 B.C.). Pompey then took refuge in Egypt, and Caesar followed. Thinking to get Caesar's good will, some people in Egypt cut off Pompey's head, presenting it to Caesar when he arrived. But Caesar, remembering that Pompey was his son-in-law and had been his friend, wept, and ordered those who had killed Pompey to be punished.

Caesar stayed in Egypt a year, where Queen Cleopā'tra and her brother were having some difficulties over the government. While here, Caesar succeeded in establishing Cleopatra on the throne. He atoned for his delay in Egypt by swift prosecution of the war in Asia Minor, where trouble had arisen in the old kingdom of Mithridates. Here Caesar won another victory (47 B.C.) and sent back the famous but rather boastful message, "*Veni, vidi, vici*" — "I came, I saw, I conquered."



Wide World Photos

CAESAR AND CLEOPATRA

Perhaps you recognize these two persons, for this is the way the leading characters looked in a modern movie. Cleopatra was really young and doubtless pretty at the time Caesar met her.

¹ The little river Rū'bicon, in northeastern Italy, was a part of the boundary between Italy proper and Cisalpine Gaul. If Caesar took his army across that river into Italy, he would be deliberately defying the Senate, and probably starting a civil war. As Caesar found himself in Italy with his troops, he exclaimed, "The die is cast. I have crossed the Rubicon." These expressions are often used today when critical decisions are made.

Back to Rome once more went Caesar; then to Africa, where he defeated an army supporting the senatorial party (at Thapsus, 46 B.C.); then to Spain, where an insurrection headed by the sons of Pompey was suppressed (at Munda, 45 B.C.).

Caesar does not seem to have treated his enemies very harshly after they were once defeated. Do you think that was a good policy on his part? If you had been in Caesar's place, do you think you would have done as he did when Pompey's head was presented to him?

82. Caesar's Place in History. — In Rome again, master of the Roman world (45 B.C.), Caesar took over all the important titles in the list of Roman offices. He was accused of wanting to be the king; but if he did, he did not dare take the crown. Some of his critics, and others who were jealous of him, formed a plot to get Caesar out of the way. On the Ides of March (March 15, 44 B.C.) he was attacked by a group of conspirators and stabbed to death in the Senate House. As he lay at the foot of the statue of his rival, Pompey, he saw among the conspirators a former friend named Brū'tus. Dying, he gasped, "*Et tu, Brute* (brū'tě)" — "You, too, Brutus." He could hardly believe that he had been so misunderstood that even a friend could help to kill him.

During his brief rule in Rome, Caesar accomplished many reforms. He gave homes on public land to 80,000 citizens. He cut down the number of people supported by free grain. He improved the government of the provinces and of the cities of Italy, and reorganized the coinage system of the country. He arranged for the rebuilding of Corinth and planned the rebuilding of Carthage. He admitted Gauls and some others to citizenship. His conquests in Gaul were of vital importance to Rome — and to us. They gave Roman civilization three or four hundred years to develop in that part of Europe and held back for that length of time the Germans, who otherwise might have overrun the region.

Most familiar of Caesar's reforms, as far as we are concerned, was his arrangement of the calendar. Following the advice of an astronomer from Alexandria, he rearranged the months, which were then at least three months away from what they should have been, and put into operation the calendar as we know it, with its 365 days per year and 366 for leap years. Only one inaccuracy, which

				Egypt under Romans 30		Jesus born 4	
Party strife in Rome	Pompey takes Syria 63	Caesar in Gaul	Caesar's death 44	Actium 31	Rule of Augustus (14 A.D.)		
	Cicero			Republic ends	Empire begins		
			Strabo	Virgil	Horace	Livy	
100 B.C.		1ST CENTURY B.C.				1 B.C.	

concerned leap year, led to an adjustment on that point under the order of Pope Gregory XIII in 1582.

Unless we knew better, to speak of the death of Julius Caesar as occurring in 44 B.C. might suggest that time was getting short. How would Romans have expressed that date? Find out how Romans referred to the days of the month. Did Caesar do anything to deserve the fate that he suffered? What likenesses and what differences do you see between Caesar's career and that of Alexander the Great?

83. The End of the Republic. — Caesar had adopted as his heir and son his grandnephew, Octā'vian. Mark Antony, however, who had aspired to be Caesar's successor, stood in the way of Octavian. After a period of disagreement, they joined with Lep'idus, a commander in the army, to form the *Second Triumvirate*. At Philip'pi (42 B.C.) they defeated Brutus and Cassius, leaders in the assassination of Caesar, who were still trying to revive the republic.

Next the three divided Roman territory among themselves. Lepidus resigned after a few years, leaving Octavian in control of Italy and the western part of the Roman dominions, while Antony took the East, including Egypt. It was thought that Queen Cleopatra had a notion that, with Antony, she might help rule the whole Roman world. Now Octavian had to fight the two. The decisive battle occurred on the sea, off the Greek promontory of Ac'tium (31 B.C.), and ended with Octavian's fleet in full possession of victory.

Before long Octavian followed Antony, who had gone back to Egypt. Antony, now deserted by Cleopatra, committed suicide.

Cleopatra, in turn, concluding that Octavian was immune to her charms, did the same. She had no intention of going to Rome as an exhibit in the "triumph" which Octavian would undoubtedly receive. Egypt then became a Roman province (30 B.C.), and from that day almost until the present has been under foreign rule.

If you have read Shakespeare's *Julius Caesar*, what impression did you get of Antony from your reading? Does his conduct toward the end of his life indicate that he was really much of a man?

Rome had started out with a king; then she became a republic. Now the republic had gone to pieces, and she was back again to one-man rule. That people were pretty well satisfied with the situation is indicated by the fact that Octavian now had no rebellions to put down or rivals for the chief place in the government. Octavian was wise enough to disguise the power that he really possessed. He continued the old offices of the republic, but he had himself elected to many of them and saw to it that no one filled any office who was not willing to take orders from him. By 27 B.C. the new government was in full swing, and from this time on we may properly speak of the Roman Empire.

84. Augustus and the Golden Age of Rome.—The Roman people were still sensitive about "kings" and "dictators." So Octavian had himself entitled "Augustus," which might be translated "the majestic," or "the august," and "Prin'ceps" or "chief of the citizens." Nobody could object particularly to such titles. He also used the title "Imperä'tor," which may be translated "commander" or "emperor." Just as one month was already named for Julius Caesar, so another was named for Augustus, and a day was stolen from unlucky February to make August as long as the month of Julius. With all his many offices, Augustus was in no sense a tyrant. He lived simply and made no attempt to surround himself with the show and dignity of Oriental rulers. He might be seen walking the streets of Rome like any other citizen.

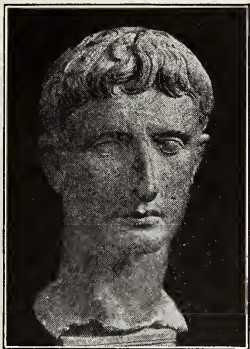
Do you think the Romans were actually tired of warfare and conflict between politicians, or were they glad not to bother with a republic any more? If you have read about Italy under the rule of Mussolini, do you see any parallel between the conditions which favored the acceptance of his rule and those of the time of Augustus?

Rome prospered under Augustus. For only the third time in Roman history, the Temple of Janus was closed as evidence that peace prevailed throughout Roman territory. He set up a sound money system, encouraged business men by removing all restrictions upon trade, and built new roads and aqueducts. New temples and other public buildings went up, and the general appearance of Rome was so changed that it was not an idle boast of Augustus that he found the city brick and left it marble.

Augustus' reign is frequently referred to as the "Golden Age of Rome." He encouraged such great poets as Virgil and Horace, and Rome's most famous historian, Livy. Realizing that the people were losing interest in the old Roman gods, he tried to revive their faith by repairing old temples and building new ones, but with little success. The practice then began of reverencing the dead rulers of the state as gods, with Julius Caesar first to receive such honor. Whether or not a person was willing to burn incense before the emperor's statue came to be a test of loyalty.

In just one undertaking did Augustus fail. He annexed the territory south of the Danube, and had in mind also extending Roman dominion east of the Rhine. He sent some of his best legions, under the command of Varus, to do this, but Varus' whole army was cut to pieces in the battle of Teu'toburg Forest (9 A.D.), and Germany never came under Roman rule. World history might have to be told very differently if Varus had succeeded.

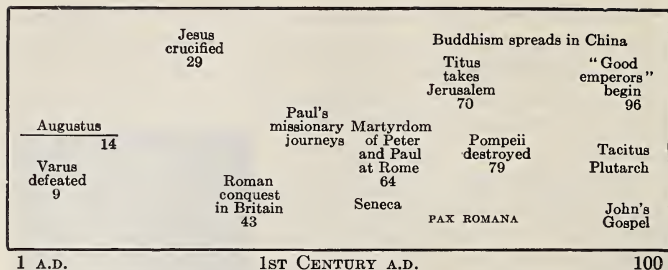
Do you think it would have been a good thing if Roman civilization had been imposed upon the Germans? What difference would it have made in history? Compare the rule of Augustus in Rome with that of Pericles in Athens. Study the map following page 166 to understand the extent of Augustus' empire.



OCTAVIAN

The sculptor pictured him as quiet and thoughtful.

85. Rulers in the First Century of the Empire. — The wise and progressive rule of Augustus lasted forty-five years (31 B.C.–14 A.D.)



or forty-one, if you prefer to begin it with his actual taking of authority in Rome. He began the practice of recommending his successor — a policy which was followed by many of the other emperors. For two centuries (27 B.C.–180 A.D.) the Empire as a whole seemed to flourish. It really must have been on a rather substantial basis in the first century A.D., or the rule of a few rather poor specimens during that period would have wrecked it.

Augustus' successor was Tibē'rius (14–37), who seems to have been a sort of Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde. In Rome he had the reputation of being gloomy, severe, and suspicious, and of paying spies to report to him the names of any opposed to his rule. He established a permanent body of soldiers — the Praetō'rian Guard — to protect him. Yet the provinces thought highly of him. He tried to treat them fairly, and they enjoyed the most honest and liberal government they had known since they came under Roman power. During his reign the public career and crucifixion of Christ occurred (26–29), though probably Tiberius knew nothing about it.

Tiberius was followed by his grandnephew, Calig'ula (37–41). He became insane, and all kinds of inhuman performances are charged against him. After he was killed, the Senate had some thought of restoring the republic, but the Praetorian Guard pulled Claudius from behind a curtain in the palace and made him emperor (41–54). His rule was marked by a number of worthy events. For the first time Roman citizenship was extended to residents of some of the provinces. A part of Britain was brought under Roman authority (43). During his reign, the great Claudian aqueduct was constructed to bring water to Rome.

Claudius' stepson, Nero, followed him as emperor (54-68). His name has become almost a synonym for heartless tyranny. A great fire occurred in Rome which he tried to blame on the Christians. When people finally had stood him as long as they could and he saw that he was in danger of being murdered, he stabbed himself, exclaiming, "What an artist dies in me!"



POMPEII AS IT LOOKS TODAY

In this picture we see the remains of the Forum of the ancient city, covered centuries ago by ashes from Vesuvius. Smoke is pouring from the volcano as it does constantly. If you were at the point where this picture was taken, you might now and then see a flash of flame.

Then followed a year of confusion in which different parts of the army tried to make their commanders emperor. Vespā'sian, who had been in command in Syria, at length succeeded in establishing himself as ruler of the whole Empire (69-79). He was a plain, honest man, who ruled well. During his reign the Jews in Jerusalem suffered a terrible disaster. They had rebelled against Roman rule during Nero's time. Vespasian's son Tī'tus captured Jerusalem (70); and when the Jews refused to accept the

Greatest extent of Roman Empire		Dispersion of the Jews 135			
Trajan	Hadrian	Antoninus Pius	Marcus Aurelius	"Barrack Emperors" begin	
(98)	117	138	161	180	
		Last of "Good Emperors"			
Epictetus	Pantheon		Galen		
PAX ROMANA					
101 A.D.		2ND CENTURY A.D.		200	

terms he offered them, many thousands of them were killed and many more sold into slavery.

Vespasian was followed by his two sons. Titus (79-81) was one of the finest of the emperors personally. In his reign the volcano Vesū'vius covered with ashes and lava the cities of Pompeii (pom-pā'yē) and Herculā'neum. Though Domi'tian (81-96) was responsible for a persecution which brought death to many Christians, including a niece of the emperor himself, his rule otherwise was strong; but he was finally murdered.

86. The "Five Good Emperors." — Rome was lucky to have next a succession of good rulers. The first one, Nerva (96-98), was chosen by the Senate from its own number. Trā'jan, the adopted son of Nerva, followed him (98-117). He was a fine general, and conquered the territory north of the Danube then known as Dacia. As a result, even yet we have on the map of Europe in that neighborhood the name Rumania, and the Rumanians speak a language derived from the Latin. Trajan also annexed territory in Asia even beyond the Euphrates River, and ruled over more territory than any other Roman emperor.

Note the territorial changes made by Trajan and Hadrian by referring to the map following this page.

Next came Hā'drian (117-138). He wisely decided to withdraw Roman troops from some of Trajan's distant conquests, so that the frontiers of the Empire could be more easily defended. In Britain he built a wall across the island to keep out the wild natives of the northern part. The famous Pan'theon in Rome was also built during his rule.

Then came Antonī'nus Pius (138–161), a most admirable ruler, who was fortunate in having no serious calamities or disturbances to upset the peace of his reign.

The last of the “Five Good Emperors” was Marcus Aurē'lius (161–180), the nephew and adopted son of Antoninus Pius. He was also a philosopher and writer. In his *Meditations* are found some of the finest thoughts of Stoic philosophy. Yet this scholar-emperor had to spend much of his reign in camp or on campaigns against the barbarians on borders of the Empire. His people suffered, too, from a great plague, which was blamed on the Christians and which led to another persecution. His son Com'modus

was everything that his father was not. With his reign a new chapter, and a much darker one, in the story of the Empire begins.



MARCUS AURELIUS

This famous statue of Rome's philosopher-emperor stands today in the city of Rome.

Be sure you realize how long a period has been covered by this rapid survey of the rulers of imperial Rome at its best. Do you think you could summarize the history of the United States since 1776 in as few words?

87. Pax Romana.—Imperial Rome ruled a territory that included a complete rim around the Mediterranean Sea and much besides. For two centuries this vast region enjoyed peace more of the time than it ever did before or since for as long a period. Rome had a right to boast about *pax Romā'na* — Roman peace.

But without Rome's armies war would have been more common than peace. Several hundred thousand men were stationed at one place or another on the boundaries of the Empire to prevent outside enemies from breaking in. Parthians in the East, Germans in the North, and Picts and Scots in Britain were frequently looking for chances to stir up trouble. In Britain two great walls were built across the island to keep out the barbarians.

Soldiers now received as good pay as the general run of laborers and might spend the best part of their lives in the service.

When the Roman armies were not engaged in fighting, they were often set to building roads. These roads, stretching through many parts of the Empire, were used extensively for commerce



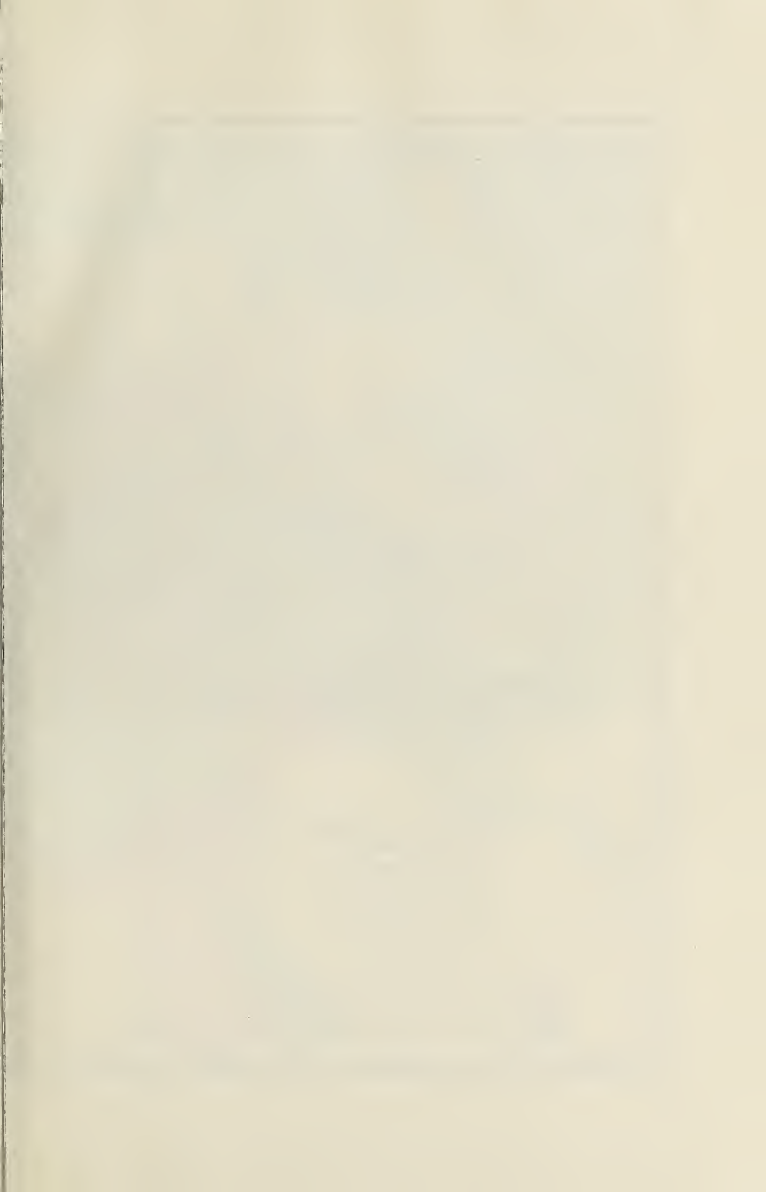
A POMPEIIAN STREET

Here you notice not only the ruins of the buildings that faced the street but the ruts worn by thousands of chariots and carts as they traversed it centuries ago. Do these ruts make you ask if this was a one-way street?

and for pleasure. Cicero tells of traveling fifty-six miles in ten hours. Not so fast, you may say, but still not bad considering that the horse was the best engine then used.

During this period of peace and prosperity, cities with their settled life had a chance to grow up. Alexandria ranked next to Rome in size and importance. Many other cities became centers of life and trade, among which we may mention Naples, Florence, and Milan, in Italy; Marseille, Lyon, and Paris (though not then known by that name), in France; Barcelo'na, Cartage'na, and Sev'ille, in Spain; and London, York, and Chester, in Britain.

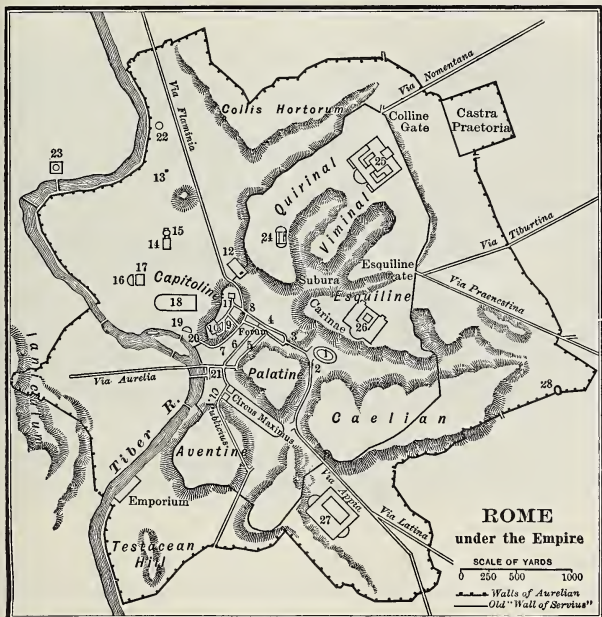
Life in these cities was much like that in Rome, as was the gov-







ernment, which contributed some features to modern municipal governments. The cities had a council somewhat like the Roman Senate and an assembly which chose various city officers. A great calamity enabled us to learn much about these ancient cities.



- | | | |
|-------------------------------|------------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. Colosseum. | 10. Temple of Jupiter Capitolinus. | 19. Theater of Marcellus. |
| 2. Arch of Constantine. | 11. Arch. | 20. Forum Holitorium. |
| 3. Arch of Titus. | 12. Column of Trajan. | 21. Forum Boarium. |
| 4. Via Sacra. | 13. Column of Antoninus. | 22. Mausoleum of Augustus. |
| 5. Via Nova. | 14. Baths of Agrippa. | 23. Mausoleum of Hadrian. |
| 6. Vicus Tuscus. | 15. Pantheon. | 24. Baths of Constantine. |
| 7. Vicus Jugarius. | 16. Theater of Pompey. | 25. Baths of Diocletian. |
| 8. Arch of Septimius Severus. | 17. Portico of Pompey. | 26. Baths of Titus. |
| 9. Clivus Capitolinus. | 18. Circus Flaminius. | 27. Baths of Caracalla. |
| | | 28. Amphitheatrum Castrense. |

When Pompeii was covered with ashes from Vesūvius, the streets and buildings of the city were so well preserved that by visiting these ruins today we can get a very good idea of what a city was like in the days of the Roman Empire.

Under good emperors and bad, the provinces lived on from year to year without any very great change. Citizenship was extended, sometimes a little at a time and sometimes rapidly, to them. Finally in the year 212, the emperor Caracalla — who did nothing else worth mentioning — issued a decree that every free man in



THE BATHS OF CARACALLA

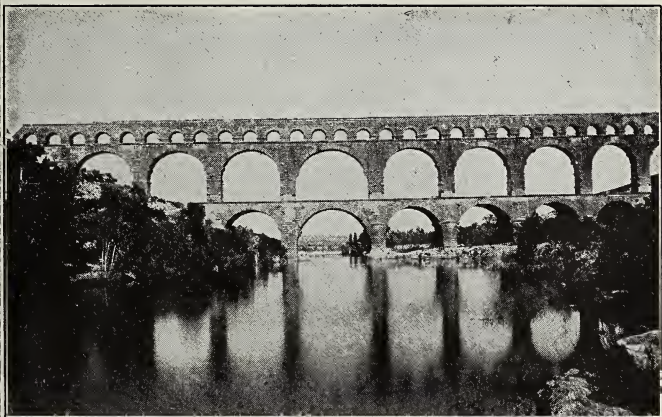
On the outskirts of the city of Rome one may visit today the immense ruins of this famous structure of the time of the Roman Empire. This view from the air gives you an exceptional idea of the general layout of the establishment. An idea of its size may be gained by comparing it with the church in the background.

the Empire was a Roman citizen. This might mean much or little to an individual, but it made political rights the same for all throughout the Empire.

Why do you suppose Caracalla at that late date issued this decree extending citizenship? Why do you suppose it wasn't done sooner? Do you think of any other country which could boast about maintaining peace over a vast territory for a long time?

88. The City of Rome at Its Best. — When the Empire was at its best, Rome was the greatest and finest city in the world. Most of its streets were winding and narrow, but many temples, statues, and arches adorned its points of importance. It had not only the original Forum, the center of the city's life, but five others built by emperors. Numerous elaborate baths were built in or near the city, among which were the Baths of Caracalla and the

Baths of Trajan. Drinking water and water for the baths was brought in great aqueducts from the mountains miles away. Between two of the hills of Rome the emperor Vespasian built the famous Colossē'um, like a modern football stadium. It was the scene of many gladiatorial combats and shows. In another part was the Circus Maximus, built especially for chariot races and accommodating 250,000 people or more.

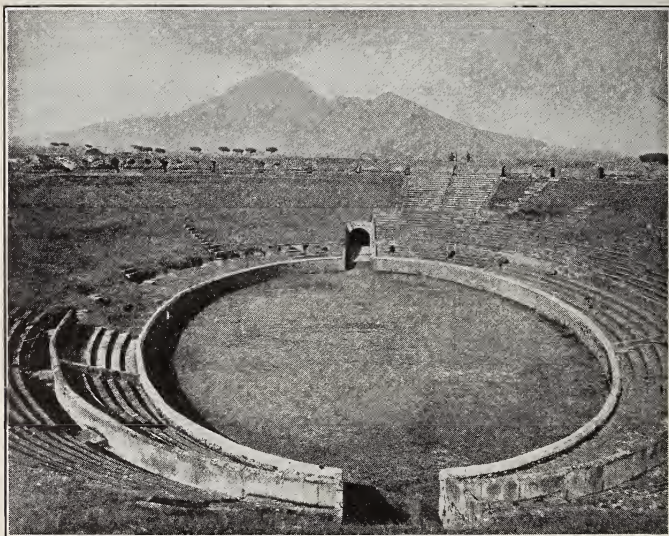


A ROMAN AQUEDUCT

This was built about the middle of the second century A.D. by the emperor Antoninus Pius to supply the city which then stood on the site of Nîmes, in France. You see how the water which was brought from twenty-five miles away was carried over the river.

As in Athens, the poor lived in dirt and shabbiness. They often dwelt in great tenements, and little effort was made to keep the streets clean. The easiest way to get rid of garbage was to throw it into the streets. Wagons were kept off some streets during the hours when there were likely to be the most pedestrians on them.

89. Roman Home Life and Customs. — A Roman house of the better kind might be built of stone or brick and provided with baths, libraries, and gardens. Its most important feature was the *ā'trium*, an open court around which were rooms occupied by the family and guests. In the center of the atrium was a stone



ABOVE: THE COLOSSEUM AT ROME

This was the greatest of all amphitheaters.

BELOW: THE AMPHITHEATER AT POMPEII

Though grass now grows where many of the spectators once sat, this picture gives you a good idea of the seating arrangements. What mountain do you suppose it is that you see in the distance?

cistern to catch and hold rain water. Behind the atrium was another court known as the *per'istyle*, which was surrounded by columns. The walls of some of the rooms were painted with attractive scenes. The poorer families had very little furniture. Even in their homes, however, there were altars for the worship of the household gods.



THE COURTYARD OF A POMPEIIAN HOUSE

Publishers' Photo

This building has been reconstructed to indicate as nearly as possible its appearance in the days when Pompeii was a famous resort city and also the residence of many well-to-do Romans. The courtyard and the building around it might have looked just the same centuries ago.

Banquet couches were arranged on three sides of a rectangle, and food to set on the table between them was brought through the open side by slaves. Since most of the vegetables and fruits that we know today were then known in Rome, food was rather varied. In the time of the Empire, both meat and fish were also popular. Wine was the most common drink. Romans did not sit up at their meals as we do, but reclined on couches, usually leaning on the left elbow.

The place of women in Roman society was much higher than in Greece. In the home the wife and mother had real authority, and if the family was well-to-do, she had slaves or other servants to work for her. She could go freely outside her home. A man was expected to marry before he was twenty-five years old; a girl might be married when only twelve to sixteen. The bride's mother



SOCIAL LIFE OF ROMAN WOMEN IN THE TIME OF THE EMPIRE

This picture is copied from an ancient painting. It shows part of the interior of the home of a wealthy Roman.

or father made all the marriage arrangements. In the early days of Rome divorce was uncommon. By the time of the Empire, however, the increase of divorces was an outstanding evil.

Most Roman men wore two articles of clothing, the *tunic*, or undergarment, all day and the *toga* for outdoors. Styles of wearing the toga changed just as styles do now. The toga of an ordinary man was all white; a noble might have a purple stripe around the bottom of his. Women's clothes were much like men's except that the *stola*, which took the place of the tunic, was longer. A woman's outer garment was called a *palla*. Hats were usually

worn only when traveling. Most people wore shoes or sandals, but none wore stockings. The later Romans, both men and women, decked themselves with much jewelry.

The average Roman was an early riser. He worked some time before breakfast, and then worked again until lunch time. After lunch most people took a nap, for the early afternoon of an Italian



ROMAN STUDENTS

The boys are being instructed in language or history, one would judge. Do they look as if they would act much differently from school boys of today?

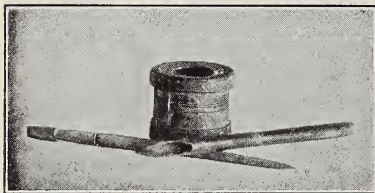
summer day is rather warm for active work. About this time the wealthy people spent an hour or so at the bath. Since there was no satisfactory artificial light, people did not stay up late, but retired soon after the evening meal.

Why do you suppose white was so commonly the color of both Greek and Roman clothing? Do you suppose the Romans had more, or less, difficulty in keeping clothes clean than the people in a modern city? Would the climate affect the character of Roman dwellings or clothes?

90. Educating the Roman Youth.—Education among the Romans was mainly for the upper classes; yet on the whole it

received fair attention. Sometimes a wealthy man discovered a bright boy of lower social rank and saw to it that he received the best of training. Roman schools were often conducted by Greek slaves taken prisoners in war. These teachers frequently had considerable trouble in collecting the tuition fees from the parents and keeping their pupils in order.

A Roman boy's education might begin when he was six or seven years old. Latin grammar, history, writing, reading, the Twelve Tables, and arithmetic with the Roman numerals were among the



WRITING MATERIALS OF ANCIENT ROME

An inkwell, a pen, and a stylus — the latter for use on a wax tablet — give a suggestion of the way educated Romans expressed themselves in writing.

subjects he studied. For writing, he used a waxed tablet, on which marks were made by a stylus. By melting and smoothing it over, he could use this wax repeatedly. Some excellent schools were found in the cities of Spain and Gaul and in the East. Some communities were lucky enough to have a wealthy man found a school whose teachers would be paid by the local government. Athens, Alexandria, Rome, and several other places, each had a university. Vespasian began paying salaries to university professors from the public treasury, and they enjoyed a much better income than did the average school teacher. Girls did not receive nearly so much education as boys, though when very young they sometimes went to the same schools as their brothers. Daughters of well-to-do families were educated at home. They learned to read, write, and count, and were sometimes taught different kinds of music and dancing.

Roman books were rolls of papyrus or parchment. The roll was written in columns so that one column could be before the reader's eye at a time and then be rolled up so as to bring the next column into view. Such a roll was called a *volūmen*, meaning something that was rolled. From this we get our word "volume." Each of the universities had a good-sized library. Other libraries

were also founded by some of the emperors, and some rich people collected books whether they could do much at reading them or not.

How do you think you would feel toward a teacher who was a slave of your father? Was it to the credit of such teachers if they were able to do good work under the circumstances? How do you think you would like to reckon with Roman numerals? Try to find out how this was done.

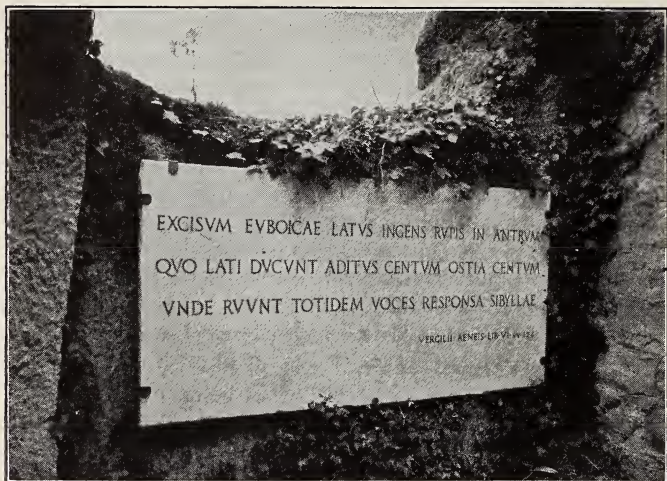
91. Roman Men of Letters. — Most of the notable products of Roman literature came during one of three periods. The first of these was in the middle of the first century B.C. — the time of Cicero. He was Rome's foremost orator and was famous also for his essays and letters. The second was in the reign of Augustus — the Golden Age of Literature, as of other things Roman. The third, or Silver Age, came about a century and a half after Augustus. Roman writers were not particularly original. Many of them followed Greek patterns.

The greatest of all Roman poets — and perhaps, also, the greatest name in Rome's Golden Age of Literature — was Virgil. Parts of his *Aeneid* (§ 65) are still read by high school seniors who take Latin throughout their course. The writings of Horace were varied, including satires, letters, and "odes," or lyric poems. Ov'id's chief work was the story of the foundation of the world as Roman mythology related it.

In the field of history we may first mention Polyb'ius, a Greek slave who was carried to Rome as a captive and who wrote in Greek the history of the expansion of Roman power. You have already heard of Caesar's account of his campaigns in Gaul. Sal'lust, another historian of Caesar's time, wrote a history of the conspiracy of Catiline. Livy, during the "Golden Age," wrote a history of Rome from the very beginning up to his time, but only about one-fourth of the volumes are still in existence. Like Herodotus, he was an interesting writer, but truth and legend were hard for him to separate. A famous biographer was Plutarch (ploot'ark) (46-120). He was a Greek, but because he lived in the period of Roman greatness, he is usually listed among Roman writers. Much of our information of some of the famous characters in Greek and Roman history has come from his *Lives*. A later historian, Tac'itus, whose father-in-law was a general in

Britain, wrote about the life of the German people and also told about the Romans in Britain.

Rome also produced a few men famous both as philosophers and as writers. One of these was Sen'eca, among whose pupils was the emperor Nero — but perhaps we should not blame him for that. Marcus Aurelius, whose *Meditations* we have already mentioned,



MEMORIES OF VIRGIL

Publishers' Photo

This tablet is placed at the entrance to the Grotto from which the words of the ancient sibyl were supposed to have come forth. The three lines quoted from the sixth book of Virgil's *Aeneid* may be read:

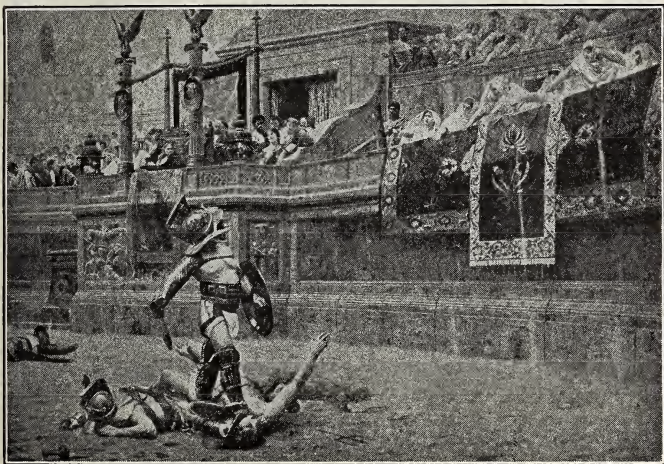
A huge side of the Euboean rock has been cut out into a cave, to which a hundred wide approaches lead, a hundred mouths whence issue so many voices, the oracles of the sibyl.

and Epictē'tus set forth some of the finest ideals of moral living that one can find outside of the Bible.

The Empire also had scientists. The geographer Strā'bo, who had the notion that there might be land in the Atlantic Ocean between Europe and Asia, lived in Alexandria. Other Alexandrians we have already mentioned (§ 61). Plīn'y the Elder lost his life in the eruption of Vesuvius in trying to get near the scene of action. Galen was a famous physician and student of physiology.

There were a few writers of drama, mostly comedy, but they did not begin to compare in ability with the great Greek dramatists, and some of their stuff is not worth preserving for any reason.

If Roman literature does not compare in quality on the whole with Greek literature, why is so much of it read in our schools and colleges today? Have any modern scientists lost their lives for the sake of science?



“THUMBS DOWN”

The gladiator who has his victim at his mercy looks to the spectators above him for instructions as to what he shall do with his defeated foe.

92. “Bread and Circuses.” — We have already seen how the government furnished the poor people with food, either free or at a low price. Sometimes even baked bread was given to the people daily. But Romans also wanted shows. If the people had their “bread and circuses,” it was said, they were content.

The Romans did not enjoy the theater in the way the Greeks did. They wanted something more thrilling. The amphitheater was really a double theater, or two theaters put together, making a circle. In the Colosseum, the most famous of all these structures, fights were regularly given between gladiators or between slaves and animals. Victorious generals brought lions

tigers, elephants, and other animals to furnish amusement for the Romans in the public shows. One emperor flooded the Colosseum and had a sea fight between two galleys. The emperor himself attended these fights and had a special place reserved for him. So did the Vestal Virgins. To the spectators, when a gladiator had his rival down, the victor turned to know what should be



HAIL, CAESAR!

The chariots in one of Rome's famous chariot races drive by the seat of the emperor before the race starts.

done to the loser. "Thumbs up" meant that his life would be spared; "thumbs down" meant his death. Matrons and maidens, who must have had some sympathy for ordinary human suffering, watched these events without a sign of distress or disapproval.

The Circus Maximus was particularly for chariot races. These were exceedingly dangerous, but that was what the Romans liked. When several chariots, running nearly side by side, turned the bend at one end of the course, spill after spill might occur, and many a horse and driver lost their lives.

A milder kind of recreation was furnished by the baths. These were much like club houses, where men would come together and gossip or talk about public affairs. The fee charged for admission was low enough so that most people except the very poor could take advantage of them.

Romans had many holidays. In the later Empire about every fourth day was a holiday for something or other. The most extended of all these festivals was that of Saturn — the Saturnā'lia — in the third week of December. People exchanged presents at that time and also at New Year's. This may have been one of the



THE ARCH OF TITUS

This is one of the famous memorials set up by Roman emperors. In one notable relief is shown the seven-branched candlestick taken by Titus when he captured Jerusalem from the Jews.

origins of our habit of exchanging gifts at Christmas time. On all these holidays the government was expected to furnish shows for the people — a great chance for politicians to gain popularity.

Since in early Rome people did not care much for exciting amusements, why do you suppose they put so much stress on them in later times? Is there any comparison between that change among them and the amusements of pioneer country life and city life in the United States today? Read the story of the chariot race in *Ben Hur* for a notable modern description of one of these ancient amusements. Do modern crowds at football or baseball games display sympathy for a contestant who is injured, or do they rejoice if the victim is on the other team?

93. Roman Art and Architecture. — The Romans contributed nothing new in the way of art and architecture, but they were practical enough to adapt and use in new ways ideas they received

from other people. Some of their architecture suggests that they knew how Egyptians built their temples. They repeatedly used Greek columns, particularly the Corinthian. The Romans deserve much credit for developing the arch, which they probably got from the Etruscans. Roman aqueducts were marvelous examples of its use.

One step beyond the arch was the dome, which was really two or more arches crossing each other. The most famous of all structures of this kind, and also a fine example of the lasting quality



A STRIKING SCENE IN MODERN ROME

You are looking along the Tiber with the great Cathedral of St. Peter in the distance. Across the river at the right is Hadrian's Tomb, now often called the Castle of Sant' Angelo.

of much Roman building, was Hadrian's Pantheon. Besides marble and some other stones, Romans used brick and concrete in a way that none till our own day tried to imitate.

Numerous memorial structures adorned Rome and other cities. The emperor Titus, for example, had a single arch erected with carvings on it picturing events connected with his capture of Jerusalem. Trajan's Column, set up to commemorate his conquest north of the Danube, and the Tomb of Hadrian also added to Rome's beauty.

Few Romans accomplished anything in sculpture or painting outside of what was necessary to adorn the arches and other public

buildings. Often those who did this work were Greeks; others merely copied some work of Greek art.

One kind of building which the Romans originated was the *basilica*. Basilicas were erected particularly for the use of law courts and for business transactions. They were long, high



THE CHURCH OF ST. PAUL WITHOUT THE WALLS

This beautiful church at Rome is constructed after the style of the basilicas of the time of the Roman Empire. This beautiful interior is itself rather modern, but the style of the structure follows that of early buildings of similar character.

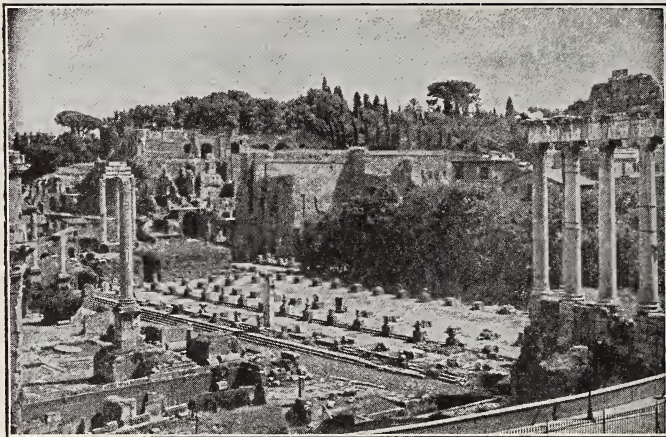
structures with rows of columns separating the central part of the building from aisles that ran the whole length on each side. Christians later used these as models for their churches.

From models or copies of Roman architecture that you have seen, how would you compare it with that of ancient Egypt or Greece? Like ancient Rome, the United States has not produced as many great painters and sculptors as Europe. Do you suppose the reason is the same?

94. Roman Industry and Trade.—Italy always produced a great deal of wine and oil; but she had few minerals and metals, and such materials had to be imported, even to make coins. When Rome conquered some country, she often took back to Rome as slaves skilled workmen — pottery-workers, stone-cutters, glass-blowers, metal-workers, and weavers. In Rome and other cities

the workers in different industries formed guilds, which passed regulations to govern trade practices and the quality of goods.

As large estates became common, slavery increased. Slave buyers traveled with armies and bought up prisoners as soon as they were captured. Caesar and Pompey were said to have sent a million slaves into Italy. To own many slaves was considered a sure sign of wealth. Those who liked to show off might have a number of slaves follow them when they appeared in public.



THE ROMAN FORUM

James Sawders

Here are some of the remains of the center of interest in ancient Rome. You will be able to distinguish the Basilica Julia by its shape. The Palace of Caligula is on the Palatine Hill in the background.

During the time of the early Empire, commerce developed remarkably. From Britain on the north and Spain on the west to Egypt and Syria on the east, regular routes by water and land were followed. In the trade centers of western Asia goods brought by caravan from India and perhaps China might be exchanged for goods of western Europe. From Britain came tin, and from the lands around the Baltic Sea, amber. Jewelry made by the silver-smiths of Ephesus might be worn in any city of the Empire. From the land of the ancient Phoenicians came the famous purple-dyed cloth. From Egypt came paper and linen. From India and

Arabia came silks and spices; from Africa, ivory. A rich man could buy almost anything his whims desired. Yet how much of all this display was the false glitter of an industrial life built on slavery! With all her wealth, Rome under the Empire was not so substantial as in the early days, when almost every Roman expected to earn an honest living by his own toil.

Do you suppose the ancient Romans said, as we sometimes do, that improvements have been made too rapidly for people to adjust themselves to them? What conveniences did a comfortably-fixed Roman in Trajan's time have that Abraham Lincoln did not have in his boyhood? Suppose you had invented an automobile about 100 A.D. Do you think you would have had any difficulty making or marketing it in Rome?

95. Change and Breakdown in the Empire. — In the midst of the seeming prosperity and comfort of the first 200 years of the Roman Empire, the seeds of decay had sprouted. The people ceased to care for even the *form* of self-government. There was no means by which citizens could select anyone to carry on government at *their* bidding. When men from the provinces were admitted to the Senate and given offices, it was because somebody higher up had picked them out.

Another thing wrong was the system of industry. The greater part of the land was owned by a very few people. Small farmers, having lost their property, became simply hired workers on the land, if indeed they even continued to live on it. Slavery was found everywhere in some form.

Goldsmith was speaking about England in the eighteenth century, but might just as well have been talking about second- or third-century Rome, when he said:

"Ill fares the land, to hastening ills a prey,
Where wealth accumulates and men decay."

The backbone, toughness, and enterprise of early Rome were gone. The middle class largely passed out of existence. Small business men were driven out by men of wealth. Families unable to support themselves sometimes threw new-born babies out and allowed them to die. Suicide became more and more common. Some rich Romans did use a part of their wealth to support public baths or theaters. But even that sort of thing, when it is purely charity,

may demoralize the people who receive it. The kind of amusements that were most popular suggest rather low tastes on the part of the people. Even the Roman army was decaying. It was no longer the *privilege* of a citizen to fight for his country. Hired soldiers, many of them foreigners, enlisted for sixteen to twenty years, and made fighting their business.

Roman religion had lost whatever force it once had toward making people lead better lives. Almost any religion is better than none at all, but when the Romans lost faith in the old gods, they usually lost faith in any. Some new ideas on religion, however, were brought in from the East, especially the worship of Isis, from Egypt.

We need not be too sentimental or try to prove too much in discussing why Rome broke down. Perhaps the life in Roman cities was not much, if at all, worse than in great cities of other times and places. Perhaps Rome had done its work in the world and was destined to pass out anyway. But we, looking back upon it, can see many reasons why the Empire grew weak instead of strong.

The United States has not yet existed as a separate nation nearly so long as the Roman Empire did. Are there any reasons for thinking it is settled on surer foundations? Are there any tendencies which the United States should try to avoid if it wants to escape the fate of the Roman Empire? Do the same wrong conditions exist today as in the time of the Empire?

96. How the Army Made Emperors. — The Empire could exist for a while with a wicked or insane emperor, but too many of such kinds would doom any government. After the days of Marcus Aurelius the moral standard and ability of the Roman emperors averaged very low. Too often the office was a bone of contention between commanders of parts of the army located in different districts. Whoever won had to watch for a revolution started by another general. Once the imperial title was even sold at auction by the Praetorian Guard at Rome. So many of the twenty-seven emperors in a period of less than a century (193–284) were set up and overturned by soldiers that the whole list is referred to as “Barrack Emperors.” Do not think there were no good emperors after Marcus Aurelius, but there were too many of the other kind.

Rise of a new Persian Empire			
"Barrack Emperors" continue			Last general persecution of Christians
Edict of Caracalla 212	Decline in Roman life	Diocletian 284	(305)

201 A.D.

3RD CENTURY A.D.

300

Why did commanders of frontier armies have so much to say about who should be emperor? Wouldn't you think the people of a capital city might have some voice in the matter?

97. Diocletian's New Organization. — Tired of this constant strife and confusion, Diocle'tian, who ruled from 284 to 305, concluded to establish a different order of things. Seeing no sense in pretending that emperors were not emperors, he made the government an out-and-out absolute monarchy. He had himself called "Lord" and "God," and adopted all the signs of power that Oriental monarchs had indulged in. His edict was the only law.

Thinking that the job of ruling the whole Roman Empire was too big for any one man, Diocletian picked a partner, and adopted the title of "Augustus" for himself and his partner. Each of them had an assistant known as a "Caesar." He intended that the Augusti should retire after a while, and the two Caesars should take their places as Augusti and appoint new Caesars. Diocletian spent most of his time in the East, while the other "Augustus" made the city of Milan, in Italy, his capital. After a time Diocletian decided to retire; and after he gave up his office, he paid no attention to the government. To one who proposed that he come back into public life he said, "If you could only see the cabbages I have raised with my own hand, you would not talk to me of empire."

Although Diocletian's scheme did not work out as he intended, do you suppose the actual establishment of real authority was of some value to the Empire?

98. The Rule of Constantine. — After Diocletian had retired to raise his cabbages, his system did not work out as he had planned. Several rivals engaged in civil war, out of which Con'stantine finally emerged as victor (312). He became master of the West, and twelve years later he definitely established his authority in the East also. Constantine continued Diocletian's policy of making the emperor an absolute monarch, but introduced some important changes.

One of these was his adoption of the Christian religion as the favored religion of his court. Christians were not yet by any means in the majority among the people of the Empire, but he realized that their faith was a growing one, while others were declining, and was glad to tie up this new religion with his own rule.

Another great change was the making of a new capital for the Empire. The old Greek city of Byzantium, on the Bosphorus, now became Constantinople — "the City of Constantine." The new capital was in a favorable situation for trade between Europe and Asia. The people of the East were much more accustomed than those of the West to bowing down to absolute monarchs, for there were still Romans proud enough to think back to the time when their city took orders from no one. Splendid temples and public buildings were put up in Constantinople, and it soon became one of the most attractive cities in the world. It continued to be so during the Middle Ages, when the old cities of western Europe were on the down grade and new ones still just half-grown towns.

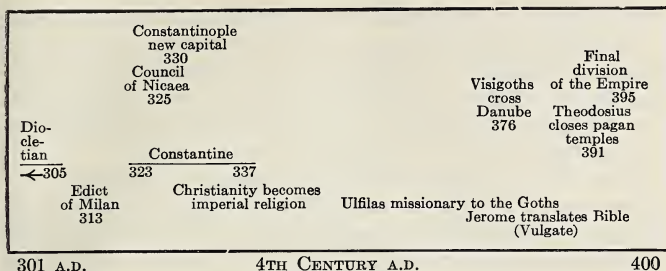
Could a country today change its capital city with as little trouble as Constantine had in changing the capital of the Roman Empire? Use the maps following pages 166 and 206 to locate the events mentioned in Sections 97 to 99.

99. How the Empire Was Divided. — Probably Constantine did not mean to break the Empire in two when he built his new capital, but the change helped to do so. Before the end of the century in which he ruled a permanent division had taken place. One valiant and capable man, Theodo'sius, was able to unite the Empire under his rule for a few years; but when he passed on (395), there was nobody who could or even tried seriously to hold it together.

The Greek language and other influences that we can trace back to Greek history controlled the East. The Latin language and



A ROMAN STREET SCENE.



Roman traditions were uppermost in the West. The Empire was constantly pressed harder and harder by enemies from the outside, and it would have been very difficult for any one man to defend all the frontiers. Emperors in the West lived more and more in other places than Rome — Raven'na, for instance, or cities in Gaul — and traditions of world unity under Rome steadily meant less and less. German tribes seized piece after piece of western territory. The East, however, went on for a thousand years. Constantinople was a center of learning and culture and trade unequaled by any other Christian city, and it did not pass into non-Christian hands until 1453.

As you read these remarks on the later years of the Roman Empire, do you get the impression that there were no more statesmen capable of being emperors, or that the job had become too big for one man? Would an absolute monarchy suit the new conditions better than a republic?

100. The Menace of the Germans. — The Germans had been a menace to Rome since the days of Marius and Julius Caesar; but when the Empire itself was weakened, the menace steadily became more serious. Luckily for Rome, the greater part of the invaders was kept out until they had some chance to be brought in touch with Christianity and other influences that made them less crude and barbarous.

But why were the German barbarians trying to come into the Roman dominions, where they were seldom wanted? In the first place their own land, though not thickly populated as we would judge things today, had about reached the point where it could no longer support the number who lived there with the means of living

then common. It was coming to be a question for them of starving or finding better places to live in, and they preferred to find better places. Perhaps the Germans could not always have told just why they wanted to move. A "wanderlust" got into their blood, just as it did with American pioneers who "pulled up stakes" in the East and moved into an unknown land in the West.

Some of the German pressure upon Rome was the result of a desire to get out of the way of a still wilder people from the East, the Huns. Sometimes the Germans asked to be allowed to settle in certain unoccupied districts within the Roman Empire, and sometimes they were even invited. One group, known as West Goths, or Vis'igoths, quarreled with the Roman officials and in the year 378 killed the emperor Valens in battle near Adrianople.

In the first half of the fifth century A.D. German tribes moved into France, Spain, northern Italy, and even northern Africa. In 410 the Visigoths under the lead of Al'aric even plundered Rome itself. The invaders settled down wherever they saw fit, making whatever arrangements they pleased with the original inhabitants. With these "barbarian" foreigners coming in and helping themselves to the land of the western Roman Empire, there could be little hope that the imperial title would last very long.

Do you suppose that when the Spaniards invaded their territory the natives of Mexico felt the same way the Romans did when the German tribes came in? Why don't we have such movements of vast bodies of people today?

For Sections 100 and 101 refer to the map on page 202.

101. Attila and the Huns. — The Huns caused infinite worry for a considerable time to both Germans and Romans. They were a group of wanderers, Mongolians in race, fierce and destructive, who came toward western Europe out of Asia and the region near the Black Sea. They did little farming and had to move from place to place to find pasturage for their flocks and herds.

The worst threat from these people came at a time when they were led by a chieftain named At'tila. He was known as the "Scourge of God," and it was said that the grass never grew again where his horse had trod. He and a vast following of fighting men, with their women and children, swept westward through Germany into France. What was left of the forces of the western Roman

401 A.D.		5TH CENTURY A.D.		500	
Alaric plunders Rome 410			Pope Leo I Vandals plunder Rome 455	Chinese first use compass End of Western Roman Empire 476	Ostrogoths in Italy 493
	Visigoths in Spain 415	Vandals at Carthage 429	Huns lose at Chalons 451 Jutes come to Britain 449	Death of St. Patrick 465	Clovis master in Gaul 486

Empire joined the Germans in Gaul, and in a battle at Chalons (shā-lon'), in 451, stopped Attila and prevented his further conquest to the West. Some call this one of the decisive battles of all time, believing that if the Huns had been successful, they would have destroyed not only what little remained of Roman authority but also the newly founded German kingdoms.

Attila then took his army into Italy but was persuaded by Pope Leo I not to attack Rome. Then he retired to the region north of the Danube, where after his death many of his followers settled down. Hungary is one region where some of them settled, and Bulgaria is named from the Bulgars, another Hunnish tribe. These people before long accepted Christianity and became largely Europeanized.

List the battles we have thus far learned about which in your opinion plainly determined the course of history? Does a settled life tend to make people less crude and cruel than they otherwise might be?

102. “The Fall of Rome.” — For some time the Germans who settled in Italy and other parts of the Roman Empire were content to let little men at Rome pretend to be emperors. In 476, however, Odoacer (ō-dō-ā'ser), the chief of a German tribe in Italy, put an end to the imperial show. A boy emperor, named by a strange coincidence Romulus Augustulus, was deposed and the symbols of his authority sent to the emperor at Constantinople as a hint that nobody had any more use for them in Rome.

This change is what we sometimes call the “fall of Rome,” because there was no Roman emperor in the West after that time. Most people, perhaps even in Rome itself, noticed little or no

difference between things as they were just after 476 and as they had been just before that date. The title of Roman emperor and the authority of Roman law, however, continued for centuries to be exercised from Constantinople over a considerable territory. The shadow of the name still lingered in the minds of many people ; and, as we shall see, some monarchs for years to come liked to play with it.

Write an editorial for an imaginary newspaper in some western European city in 476 or 477 A.D., commenting on conditions as they existed at that time.

103. What Rome Did for the World. — Rome gave to the world little that was absolutely new, but nevertheless she directed the course of civilization. Though she could not save herself from downfall, she did save for later times some of the contributions which others had made to her.

Rome preserved the culture and material gains of Greek and Oriental life, and ancient classical learning and art were never wiped out. Romans never loved beauty in the same way that the Greeks did, but they did realize what masters the Greeks were in the field of art. They even went beyond the Greeks in making busts of their heroes look like real men. Greeks had seldom done that, for their wonderful statues were most often of gods or goddesses.

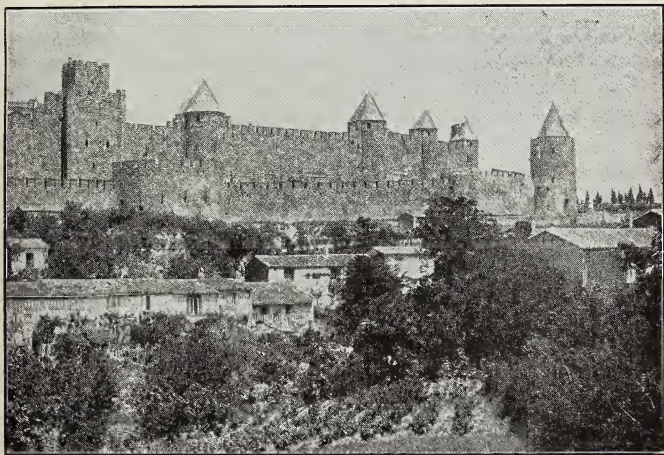
Another unintended influence of Rome upon later times is seen in its effect upon Christianity. Even though Christians were persecuted at times, travel was free and safe enough to enable them to go from one part of the Empire to another preaching the new religion. In some ways, too, the organization of the Roman Empire became the pattern for the organization of the early church.

Rome achieved much, also, in what we may call the practical arts. Her roads, her aqueducts, her great buildings, and the use of the arch were engineering achievements beyond those of any earlier races. From them modern engineers may still get ideas.

Another vital contribution of Rome to her own time and later times was a universal language — Latin. Greek was perhaps more widely spoken than even Latin in the Roman Empire, but Latin to a greater extent influenced later languages. What we call the "Romance languages" — Italian, French, Portuguese,

Spanish, Rumanian — can be traced very directly back to the Latin of ancient Roman times. Words of Latin origin fill about half the space in English dictionaries. For hundreds of years Latin itself was the only language commonly understood among men of learning and religion all through western Europe.

Rome's contributions were great in the field of government. Though brutal to dangerous rivals, the Romans were the first



Publishers' Photo

A SURVIVAL FROM THE LATER YEARS OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE

These walls and towers were built in the fifth century A.D. after the Visigoths had occupied a considerable part of what had been the Roman Empire. They held this town of Carcassonne, which itself had been a center of Roman life for nearly three centuries, before they were themselves overrun by the Moors who came north from Spain.

people to bring together with any success races differing in social life, religion, and industry. For a considerable period Rome succeeded in making people of diverse interests and ideas co-operate for the common good. Peaceful people today look toward a future *pax Romana* under which all the world shall be quiet and "every man shall sit under his own vine and fig tree." The *municipia* of the Roman Empire set models for city government. Many modern cities in Europe had their beginnings in Roman times. One

idea of the Romans, however, has both demerits and advantages — that there should be somewhere in the world one central authority to which all civilized people should look. That notion, as it possessed the minds of some kings and emperors, has caused much trouble.

Still more far-reaching was the influence of Roman law. The greatest achievement in this field is credited to the emperor Justinian, who ruled at Constantinople (527–565). He caused to be brought together in one great code the laws and customs under which the Roman government operated. This code, known as *Corpus Juris Civilis*, “the body of the civil law,” became the foundation of the legal systems of the modern countries of southern Europe. (From the time-graph on page 203, locate the period of Justinian’s rule.)

So when the outward show of world-wide authority disappeared from the “Eternal City,” the influence of Rome continued to march on through the centuries as effectively as if the Roman legions were still campaigning. All the world is her debtor.

A little city built on seven hills, a simple, sturdy life;

A mighty empire swaying earth and sea — wealth, poverty, and strife!

Rome’s legions brought her power and lands, but these she could not hold;
She lives today in tongue and law, there mighty as of old.

Has the United States, in dealing with people annexed or conquered, used any of the practices which we have credited to Rome? Has any modern nation rendered any service to the world similar to the accomplishments of the Roman Empire? Which of the contributions of ancient Rome to modern times affects you most directly?

IDEAS TO STAY WITH US

Rome’s position in Italy and Italy’s in the Mediterranean world encouraged the expansion of Roman authority.

Roman beginnings are shrouded in myth; but in their early days the Romans seem to have been a plain, practical, hard-working, agricultural people.

Roman government passed through a cycle of changes. At first there were a king, a senate, and an assembly. Kings gave way to consuls and other elected officers, and a republic came into being. Later the republic passed under the control of politicians. Finally one man, the emperor, became the head of the state, at first keeping the forms of the republic but later dropping even those.

Rome's early relations with other people form a continuous story of conquest and expansion. From a little settlement on the Tiber, Rome spread over all Italy, then conquered its great rival, Carthage, and by the beginning of the Christian era controlled the entire Mediterranean world.

In the time of the early Empire the "Roman peace" was the boast of its best rulers. For nearly two centuries safer conditions for trade and communication were maintained than ever before or since for an equal length of time.

Roman conquests brought evils as well as benefits. Provinces were often ruled for the benefit of Rome and not for their own good. Too often in the Empire one found a fatal separation between rich and poor.

Emperor Constantine transferred the center of his power to the East, where he built a new capital, which had a brilliant history.

The early fighting spirit of the Romans declined as the centuries went on. Tribe after tribe of "barbarians" from outside finally poured over the frontiers and helped themselves to lands within the Empire. In 476 A.D., even the title of emperor in the West disappeared.

Rome's influence upon later times was great, especially in engineering, language, government, and law. Like Athens, however, Rome failed to develop a good system of representation.

NAMES AND TERMS WE SHOULD UNDERSTAND

- | | | |
|-------------------|-----------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. Seven Hills | 20. Fasces | 39. Sulla |
| 2. Palatine | 21. Dictator | 40. Pompey |
| 3. Quirinal | 22. Tribune | 41. Gladiator |
| 4. Romulus | 23. Veto | 42. Crassus |
| 5. Forum | 24. Senate | 43. Caesar |
| 6. Latin | 25. Patrician | 44. First Triumvirate |
| 7. Pater familias | 26. Plebeian | 45. Cicero |
| 8. Lares | 27. Twelve Tables | 46. "Crossing the Rubicon" |
| 9. Penates | 28. Pyrrhus | 47. Antony |
| 10. Mars | 29. Punic | 48. Cleopatra |
| 11. Janus | 30. Hannibal | 49. Octavian; Augustus |
| 12. Ceres | 31. Fabius | 50. Claudius |
| 13. Omens | 32. Scipio | 51. Nero |
| 14. Augurs | 33. Provinces | 52. Titus |
| 15. Auspices | 34. Publicans | 53. Trajan |
| 16. Republic | 35. Legion | 54. Hadrian |
| 17. Consul | 36. Tiberius Gracchus | 55. Antoninus Pius |
| 18. Censor | 37. Gaius Gracchus | |
| 19. Lictor | 38. Marius | |

56. Marcus Aurelius; <i>Meditations</i>	63. Pantheon	70. Attila
57. Virgil; <i>Aeneid</i>	64. Circus; amphithe- ater	71. "Fall of Rome"
58. Ovid	65. Diocletian	72. Eastern Empire
59. Horace	66. Constantine	73. Justinian
60. Livy	67. Barbarians	74. Corpus Juris Civilis
61. Plutarch	68. Alaric	75. Pax Romana
62. Toga	69. Huns	76. Romance languages
		77. Roman numerals

DATES WORTH REMEMBERING

753 B.C. Legendary founding of Rome	180 A.D. Death of Marcus Aurelius
201 B.C. End of Second Punic War	395 A.D. Division of the Empire
146 B.C. Fall of Carthage	451 A.D. Battle of Chalons
44 B.C. Death of Caesar	476 A.D. "Fall of Rome"
31 B.C.-14 A.D. Rule of Augustus	529 A.D. Corpus Juris Civilis

INTERESTING SUBJECTS YOU MAY LIKE TO KNOW ABOUT

Roman Family Life in Early Days	The Roman Calendar
Early Roman Religion	Roman Education
Legends of Early Rome	Roman Philosophers
The City of Carthage	Roman Dress
Roman Roads and Aqueducts	The Place of Women in Roman Life
Hannibal	Life in a Roman City
Cato	Roman Shows and Circuses
The Roman Soldier	Slavery among the Romans
The Organization of the Roman Army	Weaknesses in the Roman Empire
The Gracchi	The Romans in Britain
Julius Caesar	Wealth and Luxury in the Roman Empire
Cicero	Attila and the Huns
Augustus	The Achievements of Justinian
Virgil and the <i>Aeneid</i>	

INTERESTING PROJECTS YOU MAY LIKE TO UNDERTAKE

1. Draw a map of ancient Italy showing its chief geographical divisions, rivers, mountains, surrounding waters, and chief towns and cities.
2. Draw a sketch map of the western Mediterranean world including Italy, Spain, and northern Africa. Name the principal geographical features of this region. Show Hannibal's route in his invasion of Italy, his chief battle fields, and the territorial changes resulting from the Punic Wars.
3. Draw a map showing the expansion of the Roman world. Let it include the chief geographical features, districts, and cities. Show by different colors or other markings the extent of Roman territory at the following dates: 509 B.C., 272 B.C., 133 B.C., 14 A.D., 117 A.D.
4. Draw a map of the city of Rome during the time of the early Empire, showing the original hills and other important features of the city.

5. Continue your Time and Event Chart, entering particularly the significant items relating to Rome.

6. Continue the Chart of Trends in World Progress so as to include Rome.

7. Arrange dramatizations of one or more of the following: scenes in the life of Hannibal; a conference of the First Triumvirate; Cicero's speech against Catiline in the Senate; scenes in the life of Julius Caesar; a day in the life of a well-to-do Roman in the first century A.D.; a gladiatorial combat; an interview between the chief officials of a Roman town and the leaders of a band of Visigoths.

8. Make sketches or models of one or more of the following: armor and weapons of a Roman soldier; the plan of a Roman military camp; the Forum; a Roman road or aqueduct; a Roman war galley; a Roman commercial vessel; a Roman villa; a city tenement.

9. Write an editorial for an imaginary Roman newspaper at some time in the reign of Augustus or later. (Be sure to get a fixed time in your mind and keep that point of view.)

10. An autobiography by Hannibal or Marcus Aurelius.

11. A letter from a Roman boy or girl at one of the following periods: after the battle of Cannae; about 451 A.D.; about 476 A.D.

12. Write a chapter for a civics text describing the government of Rome as it might have been written about 10 A.D.

13. Arrange debates on one or more of the following subjects:

Resolved, that civilization owes more to the Oriental countries than to Greece and Rome

Resolved, that Alexander was a greater character in history than Julius Caesar

Resolved, that a knowledge of Latin is a necessary element in the best education today

14. Arrange a "Who Am I?" contest on characters in Roman history.

15. Hold a spelling match on the names of important historical characters and geographical terms in Roman history.

16. Arrange a lecture on "Survivals of Roman Glory." Make use of slides or other pictures or articles in a museum indicating Roman architectural achievement.

PLACES FOR FURTHER READING

Adams, *Civilization during the Middle Ages*, I-IV

Botsford, *Source Book of Ancient History*, XXVIII-XLVI

Botsford, *The Story of Rome*

Breasted, *Ancient Times*, 484-715

Davis, *A Day in Old Rome*

Davis, *Readings in Ancient History*: "Rome and the West"

Emerton, *Introduction to the Middle Ages*, II-VIII

Mills, *The Book of the Ancient Romans*

Munro, *Source Book of Roman History*

Robinson, *Readings in European History*, Book I, Chs. I, II

Webster, *Readings in Ancient History*, Nos. 63-124

Wells, *Outline of History*, XXVI-XXVIII

Abbott, *Common People of Ancient Rome*

Church, *Pictures from Roman Life and Story*

Church, *Roman Life in the Days of Cicero*

Church, *Story of Carthage*

Ferrero, *Characters and Events in Roman History*

Fowler, *Social Life at Rome*

Frank, *History of Rome*

Haaren and Poland, *Famous Men of Rome*

Johnston, *The Private Life of the Romans*

Plutarch, *Lives*: The Gracchi, Marius, Sulla, Crassus, Pompey, Caesar, Cicero, Brutus

Preston and Dodge, *Private Life of the Romans*

Tappan, *Story of the Roman People*

Tucker, *Life in the Roman World of Nero and St. Paul*

Allison, *Roads from Rome*

Bulwer-Lytton, *The Last Days of Pompeii*

Church, *Lucius*

Cowles, *Our Little Roman Cousin*

Davis, *A Friend of Caesar*

Doyle, *The Last Galley*

Ebers, *The Emperor*

Graves, *I, Claudius; Claudius the God*

Henty, *The Young Carthaginian*

James, *Attila; or The Huns*

Kingsley, *Hypatia*

Kipling, *Puck of Pook's Hill*

Lamprey, *Children of Ancient Gaul*

Osbourne, *The Lion's Brood*

Saltus, *Imperial Purple*

Taylor, *Nicanor, Teller of Tales*

Wells, *On Land and Sea with Caesar*

White, *The Unwilling Vestal*

Whitehead, *The Standard-Bearer*

Winlow, *Our Little Carthaginian Cousin*



SERFS AT WORK ON A FEUDAL ESTATE

This picture, taken from a medieval book, shows the serfs cutting grain with the old-time sickle and then binding it.

V. HOW PEOPLE LIVED IN THE MIDDLE AGES

Every lord judged, taxed, and commanded the class next below him.

— STUBBS

The obligation of subjects to the sovereign is understood to last as long, and no longer, than the power lasteth by which he is able to protect them.

— HOBBS

The story of the 500 years or so following the downfall of the Roman Empire may seem a mere confusion of people and things. The old civilization represented by Rome had collapsed, and a definitely new one had not yet appeared. So we come to the Middle Ages, or "medieval times," so-called because they were between the old and the modern. Bound them, if you care to, by 476 on one side, and 1492 on the other. Yet in this period of confusion we can see certain lines of development. These we shall try to trace separately, remembering at the same time that they did not occur separately but side by side and interwoven with one another — the way the people lived in country and town, the growth and activities of the Christian Church, and the taking form of the nations which appear on the map of Europe today. This relationship is brought out in the time-chart at the top of pages 8 and 9.

Pointers for Our Study:

What kind of people were the Germans who had helped to wreck the Roman Empire, and what did they contribute to a new order of things?

What became of the kingdoms which the German invaders set up?

After Roman authority and government had broken down, what took their place?

How did people live during this disturbed period, and what associations did they have with one another?

Since town life in modern times is so important, how did towns regain their importance after the downfall of the Roman Empire?

How did trade and commerce, which mean so much in the industry and life of today, get a new start?

104. The German "Barbarians." — The Romans applied the word "barbarian" to anyone outside the Roman Empire. It signified to them an uncivilized person. The term was partly



AN EARLY GERMANIC VILLAGE

This picture illustrates the crude, open life which characterized the early Germans, as the French scholar Parmentier imagined it. One of their vices is indicated by the three men near the center of the picture, who are gambling.

deserved by the Germans, or Teutons, before they came into the Roman Empire. They lived somewhat like most of the Indians in eastern North America when Europeans began to settle there. They had no cities and did not like them, but dwelt in small villages or separate huts, with few comforts or conveniences. They did some farming and much hunting. They were strong physically and of light complexion, with fair hair and blue eyes. Their family relations were clean and honorable, but the men were terrible drinkers and gamblers.

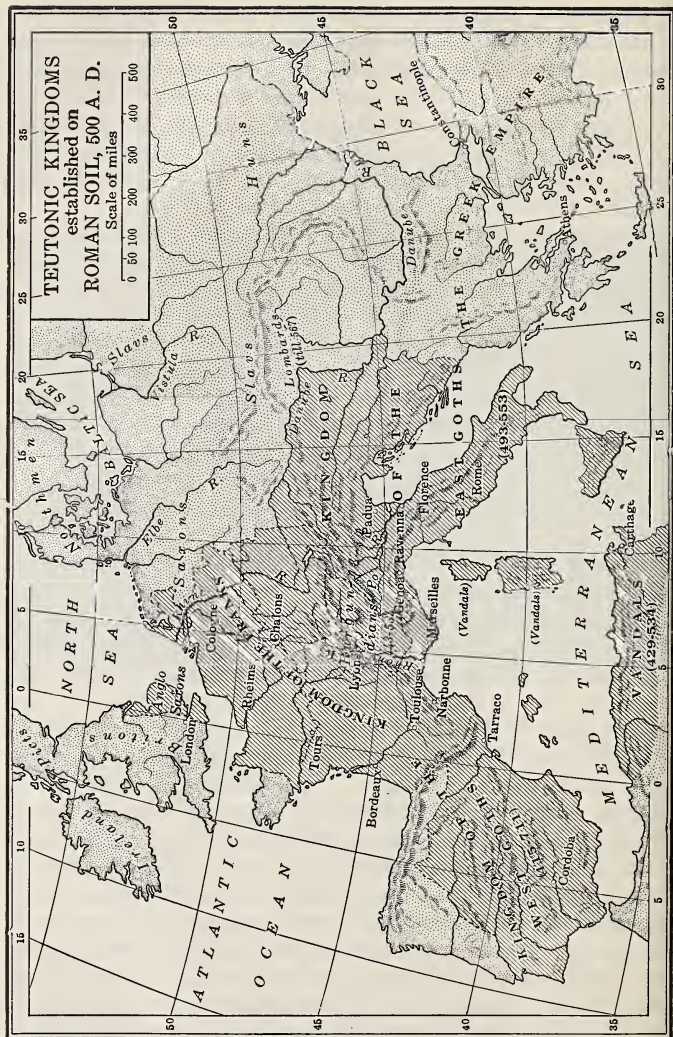
These "barbarians" spent so much time fighting that their leaders had to be men of war. Occasionally assemblies of the fighting men of a tribe met to act on some proposition in which they were interested. Here was a kind of primitive democracy, more closely related to our democracy than that of old Athens. (Why?) Christianity reached the majority of the German tribes before they invaded Roman territory, but it was about the only civilizing influence from Rome that had touched them.

The original religion of these Teutons has left some marks upon them and upon us, and their myths are as interesting as those of the Greeks and Romans. Some of their gods were *Tiw*, a name related to the Greek word *Zeus*; *Wō'den* or *Odin*, a god mighty in war; *Thor*, the god of thunder; and *Frey* or *Frig'a*, the goddess of fruitfulness. From these we have named four of the days of our week. Warriors who died in battle were said to be carried by beautiful spirits named *valkyries* to a place of bliss called *Valha'*, where they spent their time fighting, drinking, and feasting.

Why do you suppose the Teuton idea of "heaven" gave so much opportunity for fighting and reveling? Could they think these things were good?

In order to get the correct time-setting for the next topic, turn back to the time-graph on page 191.

105. What Happened to the Germanic Kingdoms. — About the year 500 A.D. you would have found in different parts of what had been the Roman Empire at least six or seven tribes that had founded their own kingdoms. The *Visigoths*, after stays in Greece and in Italy, finally settled in Spain, where they ruled for about 300 years (415-711). Their kingdom was overthrown by invaders from Africa who had accepted a new religion preached by the Arabian Moham'med. The *Vandals* settled in northern Africa. Carthage came to life as the capital of their kingdom, and from that city a plundering expedition went out which captured Rome (455) and committed so much reckless damage that the name of the tribe has given rise to our word *vandalism*. The armies of the Eastern emperor Justinian overthrew the Vandals in 534. Justinian's troops also conquered the *Os'trogoths* (East Goths), who occupied a part of Italy. Soon afterward, however, another German tribe, the *Lom'bards*, came south into Italy. Their



Buddhism dying out in India, but spreading in the Far East

527 Justinian, Eastern Emperor 565

Corpus Juris Civilis

Lombards
in Italy
568

Pope Gregory I

Vandals
conquered
534

Ostrogoths
conquered
554

Augustine
in England
597

Benedict's rule
for monks
529

501 A.D.

6TH CENTURY A.D.

600

See also the time-graph on page 205, for later events connected with the Germanic kingdoms. For the seventh century A.D., see page 250.

kingdom lasted about 200 years (568-774) and gave its name to that part of Italy now called Lombardy.

Several other Gothic or Germanic tribes went west or north instead of south. The *Franks* simply moved out of Germany into northern Gaul, and for some time continued to hold territory east of the Rhine. The *Angles* and *Saxons* crossed the North Sea into Britain, which they changed into "England" (Angle-land) and thus began the long history of the English people. Still others went north into the Scandinavian peninsula which today includes Sweden and Norway. One of the leading cities of Sweden today is Göteborg, or Gothenburg, the "city of the Goths."

You are told that the primitive Germans had made about the same progress as the North American Indians. Have you noticed any differences between them and the Indians?

106. How the Coming of the Germans Affected Western Europe. — The first centuries of these Germanic conquests formed the period which we sometimes call the *Dark Ages*. They have been compared to putting new fuel on a fire. At first the fire seems almost to go out; then it catches hold of the new fuel and bursts into a brighter flame than ever. The fuel was the German tribes; civilization was the fire.

The harmful influences of the coming of the Germans were obvious. Since they had been farmers and hunters, they knew little and cared less about commerce and industry, which seemed for a while almost to stop. The roads, aqueducts, and buildings

which the Romans had constructed were uncared for and fell into decay. The Germans could not write, and saw no use in Roman culture and learning. These, too, almost disappeared.

On the other hand, the Germans possessed some qualities which served as a foundation for a new civilization. They were physically strong and contributed a new vigor to a people who had become too weak or lazy to protect themselves. When they saw any gain in doing so, they could learn and make use of new ideas. Out of their kind of democracy, especially in England, there developed a system of representative government which Greece and Rome never knew. So the coming of the Germans did not ruin civilization. In time they "fused" with the natives among whom they settled, making new peoples, who were neither Germans nor Romans.

Draw comparisons and contrasts between the coming of the Germans into the Roman Empire and the coming of European immigrants to the United States. Which movement of the people changed to the greater extent the life of the land to which the newcomers came?

107. How the Franks Rose to Prominence. — To understand the early Middle Ages we must know something about the Franks. The first notable chief among these people was Clō'vis. In 486 he defeated the Roman governor in northern Gaul and wiped out all that was left of Roman authority in western Europe. He also extended his authority into eastern and southern Gaul. He decided to accept Christianity (496) and compelled his followers to do the same.

For the next two centuries the kings of the Franks were for the most part so weak and incapable that they came to be called "Do-nothing Kings." The real power among the Franks passed into the hands of an officer known as the *Mayor of the Palace*. One of these Mayors of the Palace was a mighty fighter called Charles Martel'. Mohammedan invaders who had conquered Spain moved north into France and threatened to bring all western Europe under their control. But the forces of Charles defeated them in the battle of Tours (toor) (732), one of the decisive battles of all time, and thus saved western Europe for Christianity.

The next Mayor of the Palace was the son of Charles, known as Pep'in, or Pippin. Pepin asked the Pope if he thought the man

Moors overthrow Visigoths in Spain 711	Mohammedans beaten at Tours 732	Haroun-al- 786 Raschid (809) Bagdad
Charles Martel		
Pepin King 751	Pepin helps the Pope	768 Charlemagne (814) 774 Overthrow of Lombards 787 Founds Crowned schools Emperor
Boniface wins Germans to Catholicism		Danes attack England 787

701 A.D.

8TH CENTURY A.D.

800

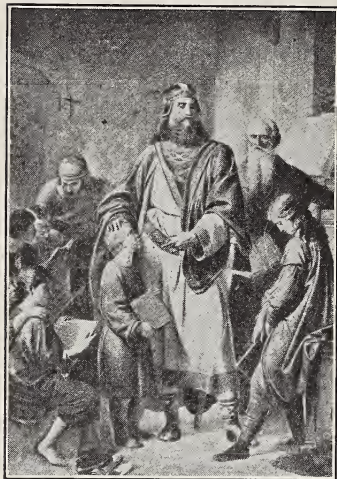
who had the real power in a country should also have the title of King. The Pope agreed. So Pepin helped himself to the throne of the Franks. Thinking one good turn deserved another, Pepin went to Italy when the Pope was having trouble with the Lombards, seized some of the territory of the Lombards, and gave it to the Pope to rule over.

Why did Pepin care what the Pope thought about the ruler of the Franks? What might have happened to Europe without Charles Martel? The map following page 206 will be useful for this and the next section.

108. Charlemagne, a Light in the Dark Ages. — Now we come to the greatest character of the early Middle Ages, Pepin's son. Since his people were still German rather than French, he might perhaps better be called Karl der Grosse, or Charles the Great. But we are most familiar with the French form of his name, Charlemagne (shar'lemane). He was a tall man, big in frame as well as in mind and heart. At a time when most people were reckless in eating and drinking he was moderate in both. Outdoor sports, especially hunting and swimming, were great fun for him.

Charlemagne realized how little his people knew, and wanted education for himself and his associates. He was familiar with German and Latin, and is thought to have understood Greek; but he never learned to write any language very well. He caused schools to be established in monasteries and cathedrals, especially to train promising young men for service in the Church. In his own court he maintained the Palace School for his own family and the children of other prominent personages. He even brought in scholars from other countries.

Yet much of Charlemagne's long reign (768-814) was spent in fighting. He conquered the Saxons east of the Rhine and made them accept Christianity. He drove the Mohammedans out of



CHARLEMAGNE AT THE PALACE SCHOOL

Alcuin, the teacher of the school, is the old gentleman with whiskers standing back of the king. The king has his hand on the head of one of the pupils. Just what Charlemagne looked like we don't know. Some writers describe him as having a mustache but not a beard.

a golden crown and proclaimed him "Emperor of the Romans."

The "Roman" emperor at Constantinople paid no attention to this rival title. It may have meant much or little to Charlemagne, but it meant trouble later, when others less worthy attempted to take advantage of it. It was many a year after his death (814) before anybody in western Europe exercised as much power as went forth from Charlemagne's capital, Aix-la-Chapelle (in German, Aachen) (āks-la-shapel'; äehen).

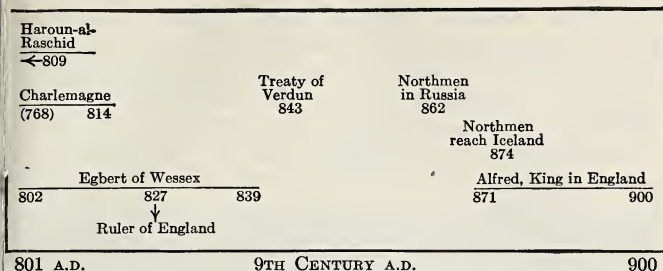
Charlemagne's empire broke up after his death just as Alexander's did. Could the reasons have been similar?

France and occupied a little territory south of the Pyrenees known for a long time as the Spanish March. He went into Italy and overthrew the Lombard kingdom and added it to his dominions. Yet he did all this fighting because he really wanted to extend Christianity and establish peace and order wherever he could. If only all monarchs were as well intentioned as Charlemagne!

The most famous episode in all his career occurred on Christmas Day in the year 800. People had already talked about the likeness between the widespread rule of Charlemagne and the rule of the best of the Roman emperors. Maybe he thought of it too. Anyway, he offered no objection when, as he knelt in St. Peter's Church at Rome, Pope Leo III placed on his head







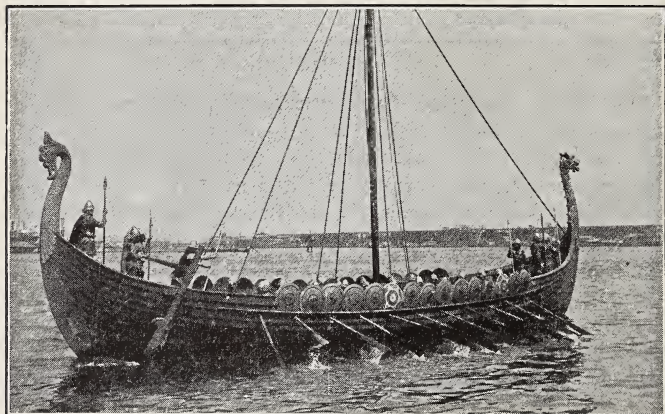
109. What Happened to Charlemagne's Empire. — Charlemagne's son, Louis the Pious, had good character but was otherwise weak. In 843 Louis' three sons in signing the Treaty of Verdun' accepted the division of Charlemagne's dominions laid down in it. The territory east of the Rhine became one kingdom. The western part of Charlemagne's territory became another. The long, narrow stretch in between, including the valleys of the Rhine and the Rhone and northern Italy, was made a third kingdom. If you know your European geography, you would not expect such a kingdom to hold together very long; and it did not. The other two divisions, however, were the beginnings of modern France and Germany. So this Treaty of Verdun is one of the events of the past which help us to understand the map of Europe today. Some even think of it as the best of all dividing lines between ancient and modern history, if we do not care to set apart medieval history as a period by itself.

Sketch a map of western Europe that will show the boundaries of European nations today. Then place over these the boundaries arranged by the Treaty of Verdun and see how nearly they correspond to modern ones.

110. "The Fury of the Northmen." — In many an English church in the ninth and tenth centuries A.D. this prayer was included as a part of their regular petitions: "From the fury of the Northmen, O Lord, deliver us." Who were these terrible people? Simply another set of Germanic or Teutonic rovers. What got them going we do not know; but they traveled far and wide. These Northmen were sometimes called Vikings, from a

Norse word meaning "bay" or "inlet." From the bays and inlets of Denmark and Norway they went out in their long boats with pointed prows and plundered ruthlessly any shores they could reach. They were not yet Christians, and churches and monasteries suffered particularly from their raids.

Some Northmen went far out on the sea. One group found Iceland about 850 and soon settlers were going there. Eric the



A VIKING SHIP

Wide World Photos

This particular ship is very modern, for it was built for exhibition at an exposition at Long Beach, California, only a few years ago. It is constructed, however, in just the same way as the Vikings built their ships in medieval times, and the men who operated it were dressed in corresponding fashion. Notice the shields hung along the sides of the vessel.

The artist has drawn another Viking ship and also a picture of a Viking man and woman in the chart at the top of page 8.

Red led another group, who found Greenland and gave it that inappropriate name so as to attract people's attention to it. Eric's son, Leif (life) Ericson, even reached the coast of North America, about the year 1000. A settlement was attempted there, but it did not last, and the credit for opening the new world for Europeans was saved for Columbus.

A very important Norse raid was headed by Rollo, against the coast of France along the English Channel. The French king,

	Moorish civilization at its best in Spain	Cairo founded 969	
Rollo in Normandy 911	Popular assembly in Iceland 930	Otto Holy Roman Emperor 962	Northmen reach America 1000
	Magyars in Hungary 955		Christianity in Russia 988
			Hugh Capet King in France 987
901 A.D.	10TH CENTURY A.D.		1000

feeling that it was safer to deal kindly with him than to fight him, turned over to Rollo and his followers the region now called Normandy, on the condition that they would accept Christianity and recognize the French king's authority (911). One more field of conquest was far in the South — Sicily and southern Italy. There, in the eleventh century, a kingdom was founded which was known as the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies. It lasted until into the nineteenth century, though ruled by Northmen (Normans) only about a century and a half.

Why do you suppose the Northmen did not keep on with their attempts to plant colonies in North America? Should we or should we not begin the history of the United States with "Leif the Lucky"?

111. The Rise of Feudalism. — After Charlemagne's Empire broke up, law and order in western Europe were in a bad way. So the arrangement which we call *feudalism* grew up to give some little measure of protection to life and property. You could have found something like it in ancient Egypt and China and even in Japan as late as the nineteenth century. Since land was the only form of wealth that existed in abundance, any plan for government had to rest on it. *Feudalism* was, therefore, a relationship between stronger and weaker people which depended upon the holding or use of land.

If a person in a certain neighborhood owned land on which crops could be grown, or a castle which could protect people when threatened by enemies, the rest of that neighborhood might naturally turn to him for leadership. They would accept him as a kind of overlord if in return he could furnish them a chance

to raise something to live on or some sort of protection from plunder or murder. All through western Europe from the eighth to the thirteenth or fourteenth century, depending on the locality, some kind of feudal arrangement prevailed; and you may still observe traces of it there.

112. How the Feudal System Was Organized. — The theory of feudalism was simple enough, though of course nobody planned it all out in advance. Since the king of a country was supposed to receive authority from God, he was understood to have the right to hand out land at his own will. He would distribute it, and the right to use or govern it, to nobles whom he was afraid of or who could serve him in some way. In return they became his *vassals* and accepted obligations to do something for him. Such landholders were called *lords* or *suzerains*, and the land granted to a lord was a *fief* or *feud*. That is where the word *feudalism* comes from.

A fief was often far larger than any one man could manage as an estate. The nobles who received these grants — dukes, counts, barons, and the like — therefore subdivided their lands among men who became vassals to them. This practice might be carried down several grades. To be a vassal did not mean necessarily to be an inferior, for vassals themselves could be of high rank. A person might hold land from more than one person and thus be twice a vassal. Even the Church held property in feudal relations just as an individual might. A bishop or other Church official would represent the Church as the holder of land from some king or lord.

The feudal system grew more and more complicated as time went on. Nobles were vassals to kings. Counts or knights might be vassals of the nobles. What do you suppose would happen if the same person was a vassal of two lords, and then the two got into a fight? Such a confused system could not last forever; but it was far better than nothing at all and certainly served some good purpose in those disordered times.

Draw a sketch showing the feudal system with the king at the head of it and lords and dukes and their subordinates in a regular plan. Then draw another sketch showing what the plan would look like when one person might be a vassal of more than one lord and when a person of high

rank might even be a vassal to one of lower rank. If the feudal system was based on the idea that the king owned all the land, why didn't the king actually govern the country?

113. Obligations and Rights under Feudalism. — When one person became another's vassal, the relationship was recognized by a ceremony known as *homage*, from the Latin word *homo*, meaning "man." In this the vassal knelt before the lord and promised to be the lord's "man." The lord usually gave the vassal something to indicate the relationship between them, perhaps a piece of sod or a stick if farming was to be his lot, or a glove or lance if fighting was expected. The vassal would agree to fight for the lord whenever necessary and to give him certain feudal "aids." For example, he had to make a gift of money or something else when the lord's eldest son became a knight or his eldest daughter was married, or if the lord was taken captive and money demanded as ransom for him. If the lord held court, the vassal might be required to assist in handling cases that came up. If a vassal failed to carry out his part of the agreement, his lord could claim the land again by forfeiture.

The agreement was not all one-sided, however. It was understood that the lord would protect the vassal from harm and wrong and see that a guilty party was punished. Kings and lords alike might conduct courts. Outside of France the principle of *primogeniture* prevailed, by which an estate passed at its holder's death to his oldest son. If the holder of a fief died without a legal heir, the land went back, or "escheated," to the original owner.

All through this feudal period methods were used to decide a person's guilt or innocence which to us seem queer. If a person was accused of a certain crime, he might try to get people to testify that they believed him to be innocent; and if he could get a sufficiently impressive list of *compurg'ators*, as they were called, he could go free. In a way, this practice was a forerunner of our juries, except that today a jury is not supposed to form any opinion until it has heard evidence given by those who know something about the case.

Another practice more or less common for some time among the Germanic peoples when they entered the Empire and afterward

was the use of *ordeals*.¹ These were supposed to be a means of getting the "judgment of God." If a man went through one of these successfully, the result was taken to mean that God was testifying to his innocence.

Do any of the terms mentioned in this section have a place in law or language today? Do you think the relation between lord and vassal was fair?

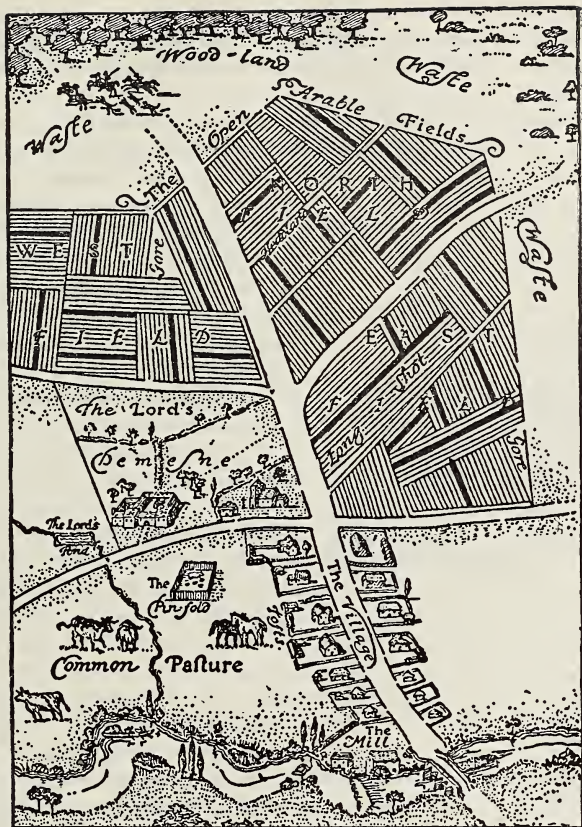
114. The Feudal Manor. — The center of interest in feudal life was an estate known in England as a *manor*, or a *vill*. From the latter word we get the term *villein*, which meant one who lived on a vill. The manor, with all its possessions, usually made up a rather large area, perhaps even a few thousand acres — much larger than the average farm in the United States. A king or a wealthy noble might have several manors in different parts of the country.

A manor included usually a village made up of poor little houses either built around a "green" or on the two sides of a narrow street. Besides the shabby houses of the workers on the manor, there would usually be a church, a mill (if there was running water handy), and a carpenter's, blacksmith's, or baker's establishment, where work was done for the whole village. All of these belonged to the lord of the manor, but could be used on certain conditions by any workers who lived there.

There was also a "common" piece of land where everybody's cattle could be pastured. Probably a part of the estate was woodland, from which wood might be cut for a fire or for making the little furniture a peasant used. Most of the things used on a manor were made by its inhabitants, and so the manor was a sort

¹ Ordeals might take any of several forms. In the ordeal of hot water a person was required to pick a ring or something else out of a kettle of boiling water. In the ordeal of fire a person might carry a hot piece of iron a few feet or walk blindfolded over hot coals. If after a little while a person appeared to have suffered no serious injury by these methods, he was considered innocent. The ordeal of cold water consisted in tying a person and throwing him into a pond or running stream. If he sank, he was innocent; if he floated, he was guilty; because pure water was supposed not to receive an impure person.

Sometimes when one party claimed that another had wronged him, the two fought it out in a "wager of battle." God was supposed to give strength to the one who was in the right so that he could win the fight. Since women and churchmen were not supposed to fight in this way, they were allowed to be represented by "champions," and the victory or defeat of their champion settled the case.



A MEDIEVAL MANOR

This picture is a copy from a drawing made years ago. Each part of the estate is marked to indicate its use or lack of use. The black strips, which all were worked by the same person, show how one person's holdings were distributed in different parts of the estate. "Demesne" is a word that means about the same as domain. The portion so marked was set off for the personal use of the lord of the manor.

of little world in itself economically. Most manors had to import salt, iron, and stones for their mill; and sometimes products of the manor which its own people did not need could be used in a trade.

A considerable part of the manor was set apart for raising crops. It was usually laid out in long narrow strips with an unplowed bank or furrow between them. The lord himself was likely to keep certain plots for his own use, but each worker on the manor had his own pieces of land, so distributed that almost everybody had some good land, some ordinary, and some poor.



A MEDIEVAL HUNTING SCENE

The lady who has just released a falcon to go after some bird has a crown that indicates she might be a queen. The other person is simply an attendant to the queen. Notice the dogs that also accompanied the queen when she went out to hunt.

in another, and let the third remain fallow, or uncultivated. The next year a different lot would lie fallow. Plowing and harvesting in these days were very primitive, and crops were small. (See the headpiece on page 199.)

The happiness of the inhabitants of a manor might depend considerably on the lord. He might be the kind who would get every hour's work possible from the peasants. Peasants must not kill animals that the lord might wish to hunt; and when he went out on a hunt, he did not hesitate to ride through a peasant's garden, if the game he was hunting had gone that way. On the

Farming in those days was crude. Farm animals were small. Sometimes pigs and cows lived in the same hut with the peasant and his family or roamed the same paths or streets where the children played. Though farmers did not understand land fertilization, they did realize that a piece of land could be exhausted by planting the same crop on it over and over again. So if a worker had three pieces of land, he might this year plant wheat in one, barley or rye

other hand, many lords tried to be considerate. Occasional holidays brought relief from work. Sometimes tournaments, dances, and other entertainments were arranged. The priest in charge of a parish also had a great opportunity. If he was a sincere Christian man, he could do much to bring cheer into the monotonous and dreary life of the common people.

Would it have been possible to use a modern mowing machine or tractor on one of these feudal estates? Could the bill of fare of a lord or a peasant in feudal times have been varied often?

115. Workers in Feudal Times. — The workers on a feudal estate might have been in any one of three classes — freemen, serfs, or slaves. Do not call such workers “vassals.” Vassalage referred to land-holding or some other direct feudal relationship and not to manual labor.

Freemen were those workers who were not bound by special obligations to anyone. At first they were relatively few in number, but as time went on they became more and more numerous. They might rent land from a landowner and then work it for themselves, or might work for someone for pay.

Serfs were workers who in one sense were part of an estate. If the estate changed owners, the serfs were transferred along with it; but they could not be forced off the estate as long as they did what they had agreed to. They usually had to work for the lord two or three days a week, and more during seedtime and harvest, but the rest of the time was their own. Serfs had to give the lord a share or “due” out of the grain or animals they raised. If the serf had his grain ground at the village mill or his bread baked in the village oven, there was another “due” to be paid and perhaps a little tip besides to the baker or miller to make sure that good work was done. A serf also had to make a payment if his daughter married someone outside of the manor or his son entered a school or learned a trade.

Slaves were much less numerous than serfs, because the idea of personal freedom was rather strong among the Germanic peoples, and they were not in the habit of buying and selling human beings to work for them. As time went on, slaves became fewer and fewer in number, as they rose to be serfs or gained complete freedom.

Does all this seem like a pretty hard and unattractive life? Surely it was, judged by our standards. But in the days we are talking about nobody lived well. Even the lords lacked or disregarded the most common conveniences of today. A daily or weekly bath was an unheard-of thing, even among people of rank. The floors of a lord's house might be simply hard earth covered with straw over which another layer was strewn when the first became too filthy to endure. Yet pictures which we have of life in those days suggest that even the poorer workers seemed to enjoy themselves at times. Much depends on what we are used to.

Do any farm workers today live under arrangements similar to those prevailing on a medieval manor? In medieval times do you think a free worker might have had any difficulty getting a job? Which do you think would have the harder life, the serfs on a feudal estate or the unemployed in a modern depression?

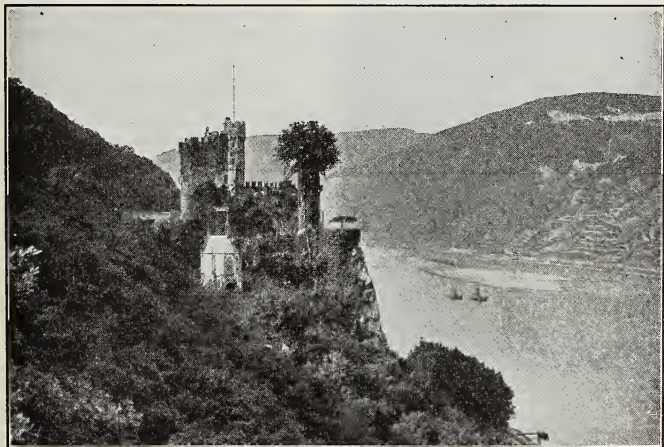
116. The Feudal Castle.—If you travel through western Europe today, you will see many castles which have survived from medieval times. Some of them sit impressively on hills or high up above river banks; others were originally placed in the middle of a swamp—just so they were not too easy to reach. In those days they were the chief means of protection.

It was not easy to get into a castle. If it were on level ground instead of in some inaccessible location, it would have just outside its massive walls, which were sometimes twelve feet thick or more, a deep ditch called the *moat*, which could be filled with water. At the entrance to the castle there would be a bridge over this moat which could be raised or lowered by pulleys. The chief part of the castle was the *donjon* or *keep*, which constituted the home of the lord. It might be built in the form of a tower.

A castle could be attacked only by the kind of machines which the ancient Romans knew for throwing big stones or other missiles. To make the inmates safer, few windows or openings were left in the walls, and these few were narrow. Occupants of a castle could throw stones, boiling oil, or other uncomfortable things upon an attacking party. A castle could hold provisions enough for a considerable group for six months or more, so that if it were well stocked before an enemy attacked it, the enemy might be starved out perhaps sooner than the inmates. Gunpowder prac-

tically ended the security of the castle ; ruins of today tell us what it could do to castle walls.

Pictures of beautifully situated castles may suggest that life in them was attractive. But do not be too sure. They might be damp and cold. Even the few windows let in considerable wind. Though some castles had elaborate furniture, with tapestry hung on the walls, others were rather cheerless.



A MEDIEVAL CASTLE

Rheinstein Castle has a magnificent situation overlooking the Rhine and 260 feet above it. You get some idea of the famous Rhine scenery from this picture.

Criminals or captured rivals might be kept in a dark, wet, filthy underground prison. One may still see, too, in some castles the instruments of torture used to make accused people confess or to punish criminals. Here, for instance, might be a rack on which a prisoner was tied and then stretched by turning a crank. One may see, also, an "iron maiden," a wooden figure of a woman, inside of which a person might be placed ; when the front of it was closed, long spikes went into the prisoner's eyes or other soft parts of his body.

Accommodations somewhere in the castle or yard were also provided for servants, fighting men, or relatives of the lord and his

family. Sometimes a castle near the ford of a river or on some much-traveled highway was used as the headquarters of a "robber baron" who plundered travelers or merchants and

then took refuge within his castle walls. Such practices were frowned on even in those days, but too often there was no authority that could reach such conscienceless characters.

The dining room was a big feature of many a castle. Feudal lords and their associates could accommodate a good deal in the way of food and drink. There were spoons, but only for soup or gravy. If a diner wanted a piece of meat pie, he took with his own hands whatever he thought he could eat and then wiped his fingers on a piece of bread, which after being used was thrown to the dogs which hung around waiting for such dainties. Sometimes on festal occasions a lord might set up an enormous barrel of wine in his courtyard, and everyone on the place was free to help himself.



THE IRON MAIDEN
"Die Eiserne Jungfrau"

The original from which this picture is made is in the castle at Nuremberg, in Germany. After the victim had remained inside a while, the trap door at the bottom was opened and his body shot down through to the ground some distance below. Can you imagine criminals today, even of the worst kind, being treated in any such cruel fashion?

For amusement kings and lords kept a "fool," or jester, who was expected to make fun by telling stories or doing stunts. Traveling minstrels sometimes went around from castle to castle, singing songs or distributing gossip. For those who liked to exercise their minds the chief sport was chess. If you are acquainted with the pieces used in this game, you can see how directly it is related to feudal times.

Do you think you would have enjoyed life in a medieval castle? Does the use of such instruments as the rack and the iron maiden indicate that people were more cruel in medieval days than they are now?

117. Warfare, Knighthood, and Chivalry.—Many feudal nobles seemed to consider the right to fight one of their chief joys in life. For a long time private warfare between one noble and another or a lord and his vassal was common. Time after time crops were ruined by the hoofs of the horses of fighting men. Church leaders tried to reduce this ruinous practice by establishing rules forbidding it at certain times. For instance, by the so-called "Truce of God" it was declared that there should be no private fighting from Wednesday evening of any week until the next Monday, or on religious holidays. They also tried to prevent personal warfare which would do harm to women, persons connected with the Church, or other defenseless persons.

Learning how to fight was a part of the training of all young men of rank. A son of a nobleman might become a page in the family of a relative or friend, where he might be a sort of errand boy and learn how to behave in "polite society." When he was fourteen years old, he might definitely attach himself to some nobleman as a "squire." Then he began to learn how to ride a horse and use weapons of war. At the age of twenty-one he might be made a "knight." A candidate for knighthood went through a period of fasting and prayer before being given by some person of higher rank the ceremonious stroke of a sword over his shoulders.

Tournaments, arranged as a kind of sport, were a sort of sham battle in which knights in armor took part. Sometimes they were almost as deadly as actual warfare. One of them which



A COURT FOOL

The "fool," or jester, was supposed to make fun for the lord and his family and guests whenever occasion required him to do so. His outfit was usually made up of garments of different brilliant colors.

resulted in the death of the king of France helped to reduce their popularity.

The highest ideals of this period were set up by what was called *chivalry*. This was a sort of standard of conduct accepted by a knight as a pledge that he would use his strength for right causes.¹ The true knight refused to wrong another, undertook to support



From "A Connecticut Yankee in King Arthur's Court," by Fox

A SCENE AT A TOURNAMENT

In the contest shown here the participants had the ends of their lances covered with wood. When this was the case, they were known as "arms of courtesy." Though the wood was intended to prevent serious injury to a participant, you can easily see that a solid hit with one of these lances would jar a person considerably. This picture shows a scene in a modern moving picture, but the setting and outfits of spectators and participants are of the same kind as one might have observed perhaps nearly a thousand years ago.

righteousness and justice anywhere, and especially considered himself a protector of women and children. In spite of the poetry and sentiment spilt on feudal knights, their interest in protecting the weak was usually limited to people of their own social standing. They seldom did anything to relieve poverty among the masses of the people or to correct wrongs that benefited their own class.

¹ *Chivalry*, like the word *cavalry*, is related to the French *cheval*, "a horse."

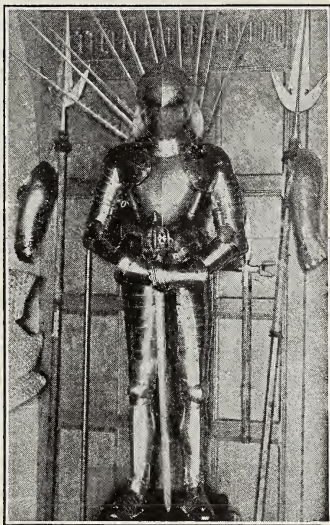
Does Lowell's poem, *The Vision of Sir Launfal*, suggest anything to you about knighthood and chivalry? Why do you suppose only those of noble families were allowed to become knights? If you have read Scott's *Ivanhoe*, recall the story of the tournament. What do we mean today when we call a man *chivalrous*?

118. The Decline of Feudalism. — By the thirteenth century, feudalism was on the decline. It lasted in Germany longer than in other parts of northern and western Europe. It never had the hold upon life in southern Europe that it did in the more northern portions.

Many a feudal lord entered one of the *Crusades* in which Christian warriors tried to win back the Holy Land from Mohammedans — and did not come back. Some, needing money to take part in such expeditions, sold to cities and towns which had been under their control rights to govern themselves which they could not very well take away afterward. All this meant the weakening of the power of feudal lords.

Gunpowder took much of the glamour out of knighthood. Even though a knight and his horse were protected by armor, a bullet could find its way through it. The most ordinary peasant with a gun could put him out of the way. "Gunpowder," it has been said, "made all men of equal height."

Just as feudalism grew when there were no strong kings, so when strong kings appeared again, the feudal lords had to take a back seat. In England the famous William the Conqueror compelled



Ewing Galloway

A COMPLETE OUTFIT

In this picture you see the entire set of armor and weapons that were prepared for the use of a knight in medieval times. This suit is now in Warwick Castle, England. How would you like to wear such an outfit?

every landholder to take an oath of allegiance directly to him (1086) and not merely to some lower landlord. In France, also, kings gradually became stronger and brought more and more of the country directly under their control. Then there was less chance for dukes or counts to seem important.

The terrible plague called the Black Death also changed feudal life. It was probably what modern times have known as the bubonic plague. It swept over Europe about the middle of the fourteenth century, carrying off from one-third to one-half of all the people in district after district. It so reduced the number of workers on feudal estates that those who survived could demand new conditions of work and pay. Serfs now could make themselves free. With the power of the fighting men abolished or reduced and the bonds which had held thousands in serfdom broken, two outstanding features of feudal life were on the way out.

Feudalism had been better than nothing. If it had had no merit, it would not have lasted even a century. It set up some kind of law and order. It established some standards of rights and duties for at least some people. It was a kind of bridge between the old Roman Empire and the time when new governments could arise. We may not think a certain bridge is very strong; and after we have once crossed it, we may have no further use for it. But still we must recognize that it helped us to get to safer ground.

Have you read about any other changes in society or industry which seem to you as notable as the decline of feudalism? Are there any changes going on in these days which some people think may lead to new arrangements for working and living?

119. Why and How Town Life Revived. — As long as most people depended upon farming for their living, there was no particular inducement for towns to form. Yet sometimes a town would grow up around a castle, or a village on a feudal manor would expand into a sizable place. Some of the old Roman towns did not entirely disappear. London, York, Paris, Vienna, Venice, Marseille, Florence, and Milan were of some importance all through the dark period of the early Middle Ages. Then trade began to pick up markedly; and trade needs towns. Locations where a much-traveled road crossed a river or another road, or

where nature had provided a good harbor, would often be visited by traders, and there towns might naturally grow.

Even though medieval farming was crude, people learned to produce more food supplies than they needed for their own use. Fewer people would then be needed to farm; so manufacturing in a simple way began to occupy more and more people. Like trade, manufacturing needs towns and cities. In what is now modern Belgium and Germany new towns rose to prominence which competed even with the older centers of Italy, France, and England.

Medieval towns were seldom large. A place of five to ten thousand people was a good-sized community. Paris, probably the largest of all the cities of Europe in the eleventh or twelfth century, may have had as many people as Columbus or Toledo today.

These new or enlarged communities needed special kinds of government. Some of them used forms of organization developed in the days of the Roman Empire. Others worked out their own institutions to suit themselves. A city or town usually had a mayor or burgomaster as a sort of chief executive, and some kind of council to assist him. Merchants and tradespeople had great influence in the government of some medieval towns.

Some towns had to struggle for the privilege of self-government against lords and kings. We have already observed that the lords who went off on Crusades frequently sold privileges to towns. If the power of the lords could be weakened by doing so, kings usually encouraged towns to seek their freedom. But sometimes kings themselves had to make concessions to towns and grant them charters which would recognize new rights of self-government.

From what you have read here or elsewhere, would you judge that the inhabitants of towns or of country districts are more anxious or more able to stand up for their rights? Mention a few towns or cities in the United States for whose foundation you know the reason and see whether it compares with any of the causes of the growth of medieval towns.

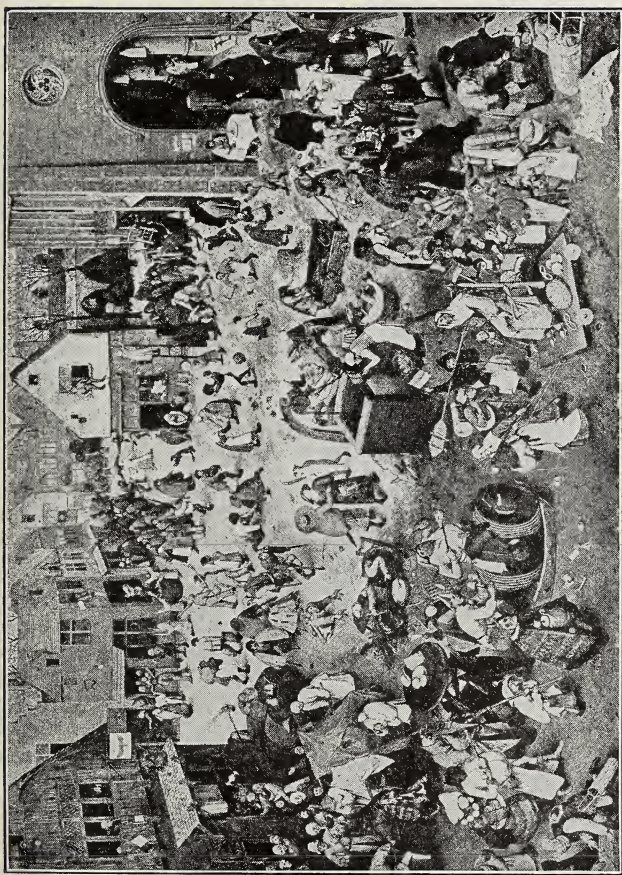
120. Living in a Medieval Town. — In these medieval towns a new class of people came into being — that class of merchants and professional men who often are among the most dependable

and progressive citizens of a community. From the French word *bourg*, meaning "town," this class was called *bourgeois* (boor-zhwa). The clergy and nobles were still socially at the top of the community and the day laborers or artisans at the other end of the scale. The new *bourgeoisie* (boor-zhwa-zē') — to use the noun — formed a middle class.

Town life, or any life in which trade and manufacture play an important part, does not have much place for serfs or slaves. So medieval towns soon became noted as centers of freedom. "*Die Stadluft macht frei*" — "Town air makes free" — it was said; and it was understood that anyone who lived in a city for a year and a day ceased to be subject to anyone else's authority as a serf or slave. Yet even a progressive town showed some features of feudal life. The entire town might have a high stone wall around it and a moat. Its gates were closely guarded, especially at night.

Streets in a medieval town were often unpaved, and if they were paved, the pavement was allowed to get rough and full of holes. There were no sewers or sanitary water systems. Garbage and every kind of refuse were often thrown into the street. Houses were crowded together on both sides of the narrow streets and were often built several stories high. Pestilences sometimes carried off thousands of city dwellers in a few weeks. Fires caused such calamities that very strict laws were passed punishing people who allowed their own houses to catch fire. Many towns had *curfew* laws, which required everybody to "cover" his fires (French "*couvre feu*") and go to bed when the town bell rang at eight or nine o'clock. Since nobody was expected to be out after that hour, street lights were not considered necessary. If anybody did take a chance on being out late, he risked being held up by some thief or bandit.

Towns often erected some very imposing buildings. A cathedral, towering into the sky, might be seen miles away. The town hall might itself be a sort of civic center. There was often a market place where traders displayed their goods at certain times and where people might come together for other purposes. Except for the market place, however, the space within the walls of a medieval town was very closely built up.



Cutler

AN ARTIST'S IMPRESSION OF A STREET SCENE IN A MEDIEVAL TOWN

Does your town have a curfew law today? If so, what is the purpose of it? Are there any parts of your town which suggest that we have not got entirely away from some of the conditions of medieval town life? Study the picture on page 225 for impressions of the interests and activities of the people. The artist had a sense of humor.

121. Workers and Their Products in Medieval Towns. —

Manufacturing became so important in these medieval towns that



A MEDIEVAL SHOP

The workers in this establishment belong to the guild of the hat-makers. Do you find a master, a journeyman, and an apprentice here?

for some time those who were engaged in the various industries almost ran their communities. Merchants and other business men usually formed a *merchant guild*, which was in its way a sort of chamber of commerce. They tried to look after the welfare of the town and to prevent business getting into the hands of outsiders.

There were also numerous *craft guilds*. These had some characteristics of our modern trade unions, but differed in that they included employers and employees alike. They frequently set aside funds for payment of sick benefits and also to maintain religious services for their members who passed away. The "guild hall," a sort

of headquarters for them, was often as striking a building as any in the town.

Each trade had its own guild. From these various crafts — carpenters, bakers, shoemakers, brewers, goldsmiths, and the like — come many of our family names. The guilds set up a standard of quality for the products of their "crafts" and punished members who did not maintain those standards. They fixed wages and other conditions of work. Sometimes they were too strict for their own good, and after a while their influence declined.

Medieval shops were not large. Frequently goods were made in the back part of a shop and sold in the front; the family lived upstairs. Whole streets were taken and named by the particular trade which centered there.

When a young man wished to enter a trade, he had to sign up as an *apprentice* for perhaps seven years. During that time he usually lived in the family of his employer and received his clothes and "keep" from the master, but no other pay. At the end of his apprenticeship he might become a *journeyman* and work for wages by the day. If he was ambitious and things went well with him, in time he could become a *master* and then run his own shop with apprentices and journeymen to work for him.

The ideals of medieval industry differed somewhat from those of today. A medieval merchant must not buy more goods than he needed just because he could get them cheaply. Neither should he "corner the market" or get a monopoly on any commodity or use tools or methods of manufacture which were not available for everybody else in the same trade. The guilds tried to fix a "just price," which was meant to cover the actual cost of the raw material and of the labor of manufacture and allow a reasonable profit. This was all a merchant was allowed to charge.

Are there apprentices and journeymen in the laboring world today? Show where the guilds were like or unlike modern trade unions. Do you think the medieval customs of controlling industry were likely to be fairer for all concerned than our present practices? What advantages or disadvantages might result from fixing the prices of goods by law?

122. Trade Routes and Trade Centers in Medieval Times. — Even in the worst periods of the Dark Ages trade was not entirely stopped. The seaports of southern Europe — Marseille, Genoa, and Venice, for instance — continued to trade with the East. When the Crusaders (§ 135) came back from expeditions to the East, they brought with them a liking for many eastern products. Sugar and spices, for instance, clothes made in eastern cities, and the famous Damascus blades — all could find a market if once they could be brought to the towns of western Europe.

There were three chief routes between the distant East and the Mediterranean Sea. One of these made use of the Red Sea. Cargoes of ships from India were landed near the head of the

Red Sea, and carried overland to the Nile and then to Alexandria. Another route, perhaps more used, was by way of the Persian Gulf. Goods were landed at the head of the Gulf, carried up the Euphrates or Tigris some distance, and then taken by caravans across the desert to Damascus or Antioch or north to the Black Sea. The third route was harder because it called so largely for land travel. From China and northern India caravans might make their way across to the Caspian and the Black Seas. Then their merchandise might be carried north through Russia or west by way of Constantinople.

Venice and Genoa profited most by this trade with the Orient. Venice also sent regularly every year a fleet around through the Strait of Gibraltar to the towns of Belgium. From Venice and Genoa trade also took place by overland routes into northern and western Europe. Vienna, Lyons, Basel (bä'zl), Cologne (colōn'), and especially the cities of Flanders (modern Belgium) — Bruges (broozh), Ghent, Antwerp, and Ypres (ēpr') — benefited by it. The towns of Flanders produced so many goods themselves that they had much to exchange for the products of the Orient and of southern Europe.

Among the most famous of all the agencies for trade that developed in the later Middle Ages was the group of German cities, including especially Hamburg, Brēm'en, and Lübeck, which formed the so-called Hanseatic League. It had seventy or more members and maintained storage and sales places ("factories," they called them) as far east as Nov'gorod in Russia and as far west as London. All these expanding means of trade broadened the interests of the people of western Europe and brought to them what then they probably called "all the modern conveniences."

Many of these towns and trade routes are shown on the map following page 296.

From some up-to-date reference book find the cities of modern Europe which carry on the greatest amount of foreign trade. Did they rank high in medieval times? Explain any differences that you discover.

123. Difficulties and Progress in Medieval Trade and Business. — Commerce in Europe during much of the Middle Ages faced many obstacles. Roads were poor and few, and bridges fewer. Feudal lords stationed toll collectors along the roads to get a pay-

ment out of every traveler. Highwaymen added to the risks of travel on land, and pirates did the same on sea. Even after the compass came into use, so that sailors could know where they were when out of sight of land, ships were imperiled by storms or dangerous and uncharted rocks. If an argosy did come back safely, however, it brought wealth to its owner. A merchant's possible profits encouraged him to take the inevitable risks. If a king



A MEDIEVAL FAIR

This picture shows a street scene while a fair is going on, as imagined by the French scholar Parmentier. In the front of the picture a beggar is asking alms, and in the rear are some jugglers performing. Notice the different kinds of goods for sale.

was both strong and good, he might put some of the highwaymen in prison and perhaps improve some of the main roads.

For centuries great fairs were held once or twice a year, sometimes lasting for a month. Traders came from hundreds of miles with their wares to sell to local merchants, who would stock up for months ahead. At a fair in an English town one might find traders from Italy, Spain, or the lands around the Baltic. Famous until far into the nineteenth century was the great fair held at Nizh'ni Novgorod (now called Gorky), in Russia.

One handicap to medieval trade was the scarcity of money. Gold and silver were not mined in western Europe; but eastern merchants demanded real gold from the West in payment for their goods, unless Europeans could supply things they wanted in exchange. So eastern trade caused a heavy drain on what little gold and silver western Europeans did have. Besides, one

was not always sure whether a coin was really worth what it pretended to be. Price-fixing, which the guilds thought was desirable, sometimes restricted trade more than it helped it.

As business increased, there were frequent calls for lending money to those who wanted to buy more raw materials or tools or to improve their shops. So the few who had money to lend came to be very powerful financially. Something like our modern "capitalism" came into being, though of course there always had been capitalists of some kind whenever men used tools or built shops. For a long time Christians believed it was wrong to charge others for the use of money. They called such a practice *usury*. Jews, however, saw nothing wrong



Ewing Galloway

MONEY-CHANGERS

This is a copy of a painting by Marinus in the National Gallery at London. You see the coins which had been received and the book in which records were kept. You get an idea also of the dress that such men wore in the later Middle Ages or early modern times.

in doing so, and thus they became the first great money-lenders of Europe. This was one reason why they were unpopular and were often persecuted in Christian communities. Kings sometimes tried to protect Jews against violence, partly because they might be forced to lend money to a king who was hard up. Often, however, kings felt obliged to join their people in persecuting the Jews.

Another feature of modern finance began to appear during the later Middle Ages — banks. At first the main use of a bank was

to keep money safe. After a time, however, bankers lent the money which was entrusted to them, being paid, of course, for the courtesy. When banking systems became well established in different cities, they could transact business with one another through the use of bills of exchange much as modern banking houses do. It became unnecessary for a merchant to carry so much money around with him, and his business was thereby aided considerably. By the sixteenth century banks not only made possible the use of credit much as they do today, but sometimes issued paper money. Really there is not much new in modern business outside of our machines and big factories.

Did it require more business ability, or less, to be successful in business in medieval times than today? Why do you suppose medieval Christians thought it was wrong to lend money? Do they have any such scruples today? Lombard Street is sometimes called the Wall Street of London. Try to find out why.

IDEAS TO STAY WITH US

The German invaders did not care much for Roman civilization, and for many years it seemed almost to disappear.

The people in most of the German kingdoms mingled with the original inhabitants, and their descendants were neither wholly Roman nor wholly German. The Germans contributed to a decaying people new physical strength and ability to learn.

First among these Germanic tribes to rise to prominence were the Franks. Their greatest leader, Charlemagne, not only ruled over much of western Europe but also was crowned by the Pope as "Emperor of the Romans."

The confusion and disorder in western Europe led to the rise of feudalism, in which rights and obligations depended on arrangements made in regard to holding or using land.

Life in feudal times was crude, judged by our modern standards, even for those of high rank. Fighting between feudal lords was common; and only when kings and towns became strong was it possible to keep peace long.

After a few hundred years, the time varying in different countries, feudal lords lost their pre-eminence, as the people of towns rose in importance and kings reduced lords to submission.

Towns became centers of trade in commercial life and centers of freedom in political life. Living conditions in them, however, seem

poor to us. Merchants and tradesmen for years virtually ruled these towns through their guilds.

Medieval trade was hampered by many difficulties and handicaps; but in the latter part of the medieval period it increased greatly. Regular commercial routes were established between Europe and Asia and from one European town or city to another. In later medieval days we observe the beginnings of the use of capital and of banking as they are carried on today.

NAMES AND TERMS WE SHOULD UNDERSTAND

- | | | |
|---------------------------------|------------------------|----------------------|
| 1. Middle Ages | 13. Lord ; suzerain | 27. Moat |
| 2. Dark Ages | 14. Vassal | 28. Tournament |
| 3. Thor | 15. Fief | 29. Charter |
| 4. Wodin ; Odin | 16. Homage | 30. Bourgeois |
| 5. Clovis | 17. Primogeniture | 31. Curfew |
| 6. Mayor of the Palace | 18. Ordeals | 32. Guild |
| 7. Charles Martel | 19. Manor | 33. Craftsman |
| 8. Pepin, Pippin | 20. Three-field system | 34. Apprentice |
| 9. Charlemagne | 21. Peasant | 35. Journeyman |
| 10. Treaty of Verdun | 22. Freeholder | 36. Master |
| 11. Northmen, Norsemen, Vikings | 23. Villein | 37. "Just price" |
| 12. Feudalism | 24. Serf | 38. Hanseatic League |
| | 25. Chivalry | |
| | 26. Knight | |

DATES WORTH REMEMBERING

- 800 Charlemagne crowned Emperor by the Pope
 843 The Treaty of Verdun, dividing Charlemagne's dominions
 1348-1350 The Black Death

INTERESTING SUBJECTS YOU MAY LIKE TO KNOW ABOUT

- Religious Ideas of the Early Germans
 Personal Qualities and Habits of the Early Germans
 German Ideas of Law
 The Conquests and Conversion of Clovis
 Education under Charlemagne
 The Northmen and Their Raids
 Life on a Feudal Manor
 Farming in Feudal Times
 Life in a Feudal Castle
 The Training of a Feudal Knight
 A Medieval Tournament
 The Purposes and Work of Medieval Guilds
 Amusements and Recreation in Medieval Times

Women and Girls in Medieval Times
 The Black Death
 Life in a Medieval City, as Paris or London
 Products which Europe and Asia Could Interchange
 Medieval Markets and Fairs
 The History of the Hanseatic League
 Bankers and Banks in Medieval Europe
 Survivals of Feudalism in Europe Today

INTERESTING PROJECTS YOU MAY LIKE TO UNDERTAKE

1. Sketch a map of Europe, locating a few important cities, so as to give a general impression of Europe in the "Dark Ages." Indicate the location of the various "barbarian" kingdoms set up within the Roman Empire.
2. Locate on a map of Europe all the bodies of water, cities, and towns mentioned in this unit. Trace the chief trade routes of medieval times.
3. Dramatize "A Day in Charlemagne's Court" or "Charlemagne's Coronation."
4. Draw a plan of a typical manor or castle.
5. Make sketches or models of one or more of the following: a feudal castle, equipment of a feudal knight, medieval instruments of torture, medieval costumes, a medieval town hall, a Viking ship.
6. A conversation between a master and an apprentice.
7. Write the diary of an apprentice, journeyman, or master, entering several dates within a period of two or three years.
8. A banquet in a medieval castle.
9. Continue your Chart of Trends in World Progress.

PLACES FOR FURTHER READING

Adams, *Civilization during the Middle Ages*, XII
 Cheyney, *Industrial and Social History of England*, I-IV
 Coffman, *Human Race*, XXVI-XXIX, XXXI, XXXIII, XXXV
 Emerton, *Introduction to the Middle Ages*, II-VIII, XV
 Griffis, *Brave Little Holland*, IX
 Munro, *History of the Middle Ages*, XII, XIII, XIV, XXIX
 Ogg, *Source Book of Medieval History*, 1-48, 68-71, 196-202, XIII, XX
 Osgood, *A History of Industry*, 106-178
 Tappan, *In Feudal Times*, I, VI
 Tickner, *A Social and Industrial History of England*, 42-84
 Cornish, *Chivalry*
 Coulton, *Life in the Middle Ages*
 Cutts, *Scenes and Characters of the Middle Ages*
 Davis, *Life on a Medieval Barony*
 Harding, *The Story of the Middle Ages*
 Jessopp, *The Coming of the Friars*
 Tappan, *When Knights Were Bold*

Cervantes, *Don Quixote*
Clemens, *A Connecticut Yankee in King Arthur's Court*
Doyle, *The White Company*
Hall, *Viking Tales*
Hewlett, *Life and Death of Richard Yea-and-Nay*
Lamprey, *In the Days of the Guild*
Lansing, *Page, Esquire, and Knight*
Liljencrantz, *A Thrall of Leif the Lucky*
Pyle, *The Merry Adventures of Robin Hood*
Reade, *The Cloister and the Hearth*
Scott, *Ivanhoe*
Stein, *A Little Shepherd of Provence*



MEDIEVAL MUSICIANS
From an old Manuscript.



MEDIEVAL CHURCHMEN

These three pictures are copied from an old manuscript. The picture at the left shows a bishop with his "shepherd's crook." The center picture shows a pope wearing his crown and carrying a crosier. At the right is the old Saxon churchman and author, the Venerable Bede.

VI. TRIALS AND TRIUMPHS OF THE CHRISTIAN CHURCH

The rock on which I have founded my conscience is that on which Christ has built His church. — ABELARD

The Pope is master of the emperors.
— GREGORY VII

Now let us turn to the religious side of the medieval period. Through the often dark and confused period of the Middle Ages the Christian Church was almost the only bond of union among the peoples of Europe. Any intelligent person, whatever his own faith, must recognize the development of Christianity as a vital force in the making of history. So let us put together in a connected story the chief facts about its beginnings and its progress.

Pointers for Our Study:

How did Christianity begin, and with what difficulties did it have to contend in its early years?

How did the Christian Church rise to a place of leadership among the peoples of Europe?

How did the rival faith, founded by Mohammed, make headway? What effect did it have upon the world?

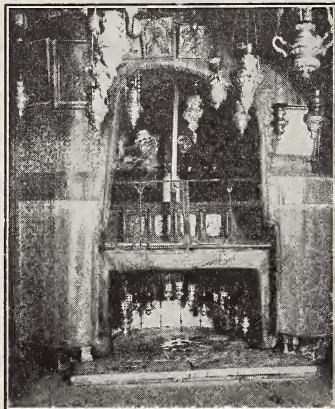
What conflicts occurred between Christianity and Mohammedanism, and what results came from them?

How did the Church wield its power in medieval times, and in what ways did it serve civilization?

124. How Christianity Began. — "But thou, Bethlehem, which art little to be among the thousands of Judah, out of thee shall one come forth that is to be ruler in Israel." So declared an ancient

236 Trials and Triumphs of the Christian Church

prophet. In that town about the year 4 B.C. was born the one whom Christians accept as the fulfillment of that prophecy. The New Testament account of Jesus' life tells little of his boyhood days, most of which were spent at Nazareth. He was about



THE GROTTO OF THE NATIVITY

The star in the floor is supposed to mark the birthplace of the child Jesus. A little way from this spot one may be shown the manger in which the child was laid. As to the exact location of many scenes of Bible events there is disagreement, but no one claims any other spot for the birth of Jesus than this one, over which the Church of the Nativity was built in Bethlehem.

Link this section and the next two with other events mentioned in the time-graphs on pages 161, 164, and 187. If you have any difficulty in fixing the location of places mentioned in these sections, turn back to the map on page 57 and the map following page 168.

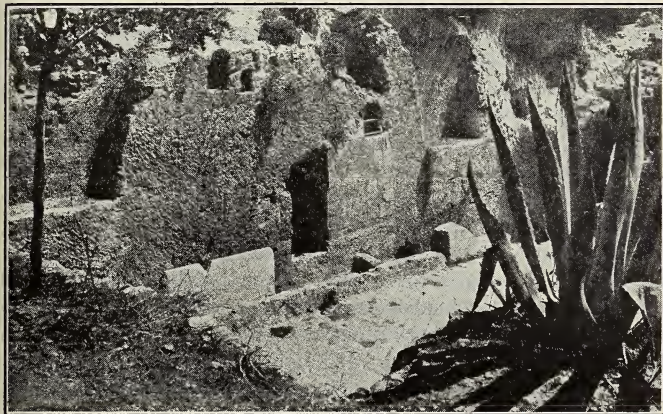
If you studied about the life of Jesus first in a church or Sunday school, did you think of it as a fact in history or as something separate from the history of the world in general? Why was Jesus executed? In view of the small number of people who knew him personally, does it seem strange that he should have so influenced millions of people since?

thirty years old when he began his public teaching, and about thirty-three when his crucifixion occurred in Jerusalem (29 or 30 A.D.). He wrote no poems and left no books behind him; but with marvelous power he wrote upon the lives of those who knew him best, and they passed on his messages to later times.

He associated closely with him a small group of men as his "apostles." Though they were terribly discouraged at his execution, their belief that he rose from the dead and ascended to heaven inspired them to carry on mightily in his name. They traveled throughout the Roman Empire and even beyond its limits. All of the original twelve, except John, met a violent death of some sort.

125. How Christianity Spread over the Roman World.— Since Jesus and his twelve apostles came from Jewish families, many thought that it was for Jews alone that the new teachings had come. It was finally decided, however, that "Gentiles" as well should be given the benefit of the new Gospel.

Foremost among the missionaries who carried the new religion to the Gentiles was Paul. Under the name of Saul he had been



THE GARDEN TOMB

The location of the tomb in which Jesus was laid away after his crucifixion is one of the many disputed spots. In the Church of the Holy Sepulcher is the most famous of the disputed locations. Here is another one. If this is not the correct spot, at least the picture shows the way rock tombs were frequently constructed in the days when they were used for burial. A great stone would be set up in front of the door through which one now may enter the tomb.

harsh in persecuting Christians until a sudden experience came to him which changed his life completely. He was a citizen of the Roman Empire, well educated and brilliant. He founded many churches and wrote letters which are now included among the books of the New Testament. It was Peter, however, who, according to long-accepted tradition, established the church at Rome which became the chief among Christian churches.

Probably many of you are familiar with extracts from some of Paul's letters. Read, for example, I Corinthians XIII, Romans XII, and

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Ephesians VI, if you have never done so. Do they give you an idea of the manner of man Paul was?

In many respects there had never been a more favorable time for the spread of a new religion. Many educated Greeks and Romans could not accept the myths about their gods. Among the poorer classes, too, there was discontent. Some Oriental superstitions made some headway in the western world, but neither they nor the teachings of the philosophers met human needs fully. The Hebrew religion had not spread among other peoples, because its followers had seldom attempted to win others to their faith.

Yet the Jewish people themselves looked forward to the coming of the Messiah, who would bring about a better day for the world. Moreover, in every large community of the Empire there were Jewish people, especially after the "dispersion" of the Jews from Palestine. So Christian missionaries, especially if they were Jews themselves, could easily get a hearing in any large community.

Christianity made a special appeal to the poor and the weak. It brought into religion to a greater degree than before the thought of the love of God instead of merely the fear of Him. It gave people a hope of a life to come as compensation for some of the unpleasant features of life in this world. It taught that all men are brothers. It was the only religion of the time that could speak vividly of a personal founder who had lived, died, and risen again.

Language also helped to spread Christianity. Everywhere many understood Greek or Latin, or both. Jesus and his apostles probably spoke Aramaic, but Paul and his associates could converse with people in several languages, especially Greek.

The Roman Empire itself made the spread of Christianity easy. It brought most of the civilized world under one rule and made travel from one part of it to another comparatively safe. Paul and others found that their Roman citizenship helped them in defending themselves against their enemies. Moreover, the peace which Roman rule established gave people a chance to think and made it much simpler for the early missionaries to travel with their message.

If a person came to your town today preaching a new religion, what sort of reception do you imagine he would get? Why did many Jews not find it easy to accept Jesus as the Messiah who was to come? When

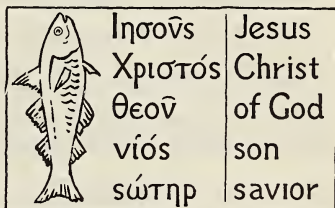
American missionaries have gone to other countries, has their American citizenship been of any benefit to them?

126. How the Empire Treated Christians.—The Roman government was usually reasonable to those of any religion who made no trouble for it; yet in a few years Christians began to suffer persecution. Many Christians believed that they ought to separate themselves from the rest of the world. Roman authorities could not understand why Christians refused to burn incense before the statues of dead Roman emperors. Christians looked upon this as a kind of idolatry; but the Romans considered it a patriotic duty, and to refuse to do it was regarded as treason.

The Roman authorities also objected to secret societies, for fear they might become centers of trouble. Enemies of the Christians circulated ridiculous stories about what went on at their meetings. They were accused even of using the blood of murdered children in their communion services. Sometimes the general accusation was made that Christians were "haters of the human race," and they were persecuted, as was said, "for the name," even when there was no direct charge against them. They were even blamed for floods, pestilence, and droughts.

The first serious persecution of the Christians occurred in and around Rome soon after the great fire in that city in 64 A.D. The Emperor Nero knew that he was accused of causing the fire, and so he switched the blame on the Christians. While this persecution was not very extensive outside of Rome, it was bad there; and in the course of it the two great Christian teachers Peter and Paul were put to death.

It is strange what terrible suffering human beings can invent for others. Many Christians suffered crucifixion. Sometimes they



A SYMBOL USED BY EARLY CHRISTIANS

Since the first letters of the five Greek words spelled the word for fish, Christians sometimes put a drawing of a fish (seldom as elaborate as the one shown here) on the front of their houses when they wished to identify themselves for the benefit of fellow-Christians but to escape advertising themselves to persecutors.

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were burned at the stake after their bodies and clothes had been soaked with oil. Sometimes they were put into the arena, where wild animals could tear them to pieces. Only true Christians would be willing to meet death for their faith, and these Christian *martyrs* — the word in Greek means *witnesses* — did much to win sympathy for Christianity.

AVRELIA DVLCISSIMA FILIA QVAE

DE SAECVLO RECESSIT VIXIT ANN. XV. M. IIII.

SEVERO ET QVINTIN COSS.

“Aurelia; our sweetest daughter, who departed from the world. She lived fifteen years and four months. Severus and Quintinus being consuls.” (A.D. 325)

AN INSCRIPTION IN THE CATACOMBS

Does not this make you realize that these people had the same kind of feelings and sorrows that come to men and women today?

Some of the good emperors permitted or encouraged the persecution of Christians. Marcus Aurelius, perhaps the best of all the emperors, was among these. They wanted to maintain law and order, and it seemed disloyal for people to say that their allegiance to God was higher than their responsibility to any human authority.

The last and worst of all the persecutions occurred in the reign of Diocletian. Then a deliberate effort was made to root out Christianity. In some of these persecutions Christians held services in the underground catacombs, where the dead were laid away. There we find numerous drawings and symbols which represent the ideas and teachings of the early Christians. But Diocletian could not ruin Christianity. After eight years of terror, persecutions of Christians on any large scale came to an end in Europe.

“The blood of the martyrs is the seed of the Church.” Just what does this quotation mean? There are Americans who will not vote because the name of God does not appear in the United States Constitution. Is their attitude anything like that of the early Christians toward the Roman Empire?

127. Christianity as the Religion of the Empire. — A familiar legend relates that while Constantine was engaged in civil war for leadership in the Empire, the sign of the cross appeared to him in the sky with these words around it, "In hoc signo vinces," "By this sign thou shalt conquer." After defeating his rival in 312, he adopted the cross as his particular emblem. His wife was already a Christian.

In 313 he issued the Edict of Mil'an, which gave Christianity full equality with all other faiths. Christians then numbered only about one-tenth of all the population, but they were to a notable extent an intelligent and determined group, and their support was worth having. Constantine himself was not actually baptized into membership in the Church until a little while before his death, but he made Christianity the religion of his court and gave it a privileged place in his interests.

Now was this good or otherwise for Christianity? Many more now declared themselves Christians, for thousands had not had the nerve to profess Christianity publicly while persecutions were going on. But since it was now good politics to be a Christian, some claimed the new faith who were not really sincere. The adoption of the cross as a battle sign made Christianity a sort of fighting faith.

Important items mentioned in this section and the next are shown in the time-graph on page 189.

How many hymns do you know which speak of soldiers or use other military terms in connection with Christianity? Do you think many Christians today would die for their beliefs?

Some of Constantine's successors tried to displace Christianity from its privileged position but failed. The Emperor Theodosius (379-395) prohibited the practice of any pagan religions. He closed up the oracles and put an end to the worship of emperors. Indeed, there were occasions when people were persecuted because they would *not* profess Christianity.

Christianity benefited the Roman Empire in numerous ways. The early Christians practiced what they preached. "How these Christians love one another," was a remark frequently made about them. Christianity refined people's manners, and encouraged purity and honor in family life. It put an end to the brutal

gladiatorial combats and largely stopped the indecent shows in the Roman theaters. It taught the brotherhood of man and sympathy on the part of one human being for another. It helped to improve the condition of the poor. Since Jesus himself had worked as a carpenter, labor was dignified and ennobled. Christianity also gave inspiration for new subjects to artists and writers. In fact for several centuries they devoted themselves very largely to religious themes.

Sometimes, it is true, Christianity caused a person to lose his interest in this world because he was so anxious to get ready for heaven. Sometimes, too, a Christian would not take part in a war, and thus perhaps the ability of the Empire to defend itself was slightly weakened. But these were small matters in comparison with the gains Christianity brought to the world.

Can you understand why the supporters of a faith which had suffered persecution would turn around and persecute others? Can a good thing be overdone?

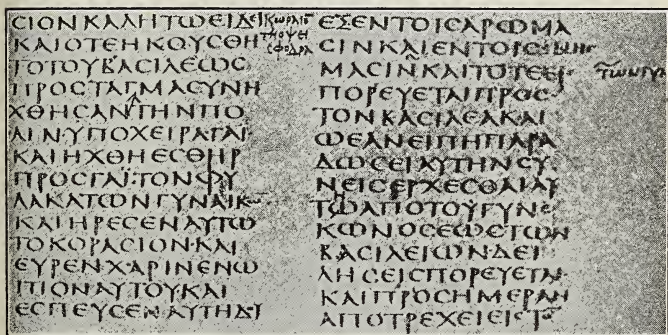
128. Religious Teachings of the Early Church. — One problem that faced Constantine was to determine just what Christianity was to teach. Not that he cared himself particularly, but there was such violent difference of opinion on some points that he had a church council meet at the city of Nicae'a, in Asia Minor, in 325. Were Jesus and God of the same character in all respects? This council maintained that they were, and declared that to be the orthodox belief of the Church. It drew up the Nicene Creed, which is still the basis of the teachings of many Christian denominations. There was also some disagreement as to which of the early Christian writings should be considered particularly "inspired." The New Testament was finally accepted in its present form at church councils held at Rome in 382 and Carthage in 397.

One famous Christian writer was Jerome (340-420). He spent a considerable part of his life in Bethlehem translating the manuscripts of the Old and New Testaments from their original languages into Latin. This translation became known as the *Vulgate*, from the Latin word that signified it was the version in common use. The *Vulgate* is even yet the basis for Bible translations into other languages made under the direction of the Roman Catholic Church. Another noted writer was Augustine (354-430), bishop of Hippo

in Africa. His work, *The City of God*, is one of the most famous religious books ever written.

Do you think people today pay as much attention to matters of creed and purely religious doctrines as formerly? Was it important that a certain doctrine should be declared orthodox and its belief expected to be held by all Christians?

129. Taking Christianity to the Barbarians. — One of the first activities of Christians after they became numerous was to seek to convert the “barbarians” to Christianity. Ul’filas (311–383)



© American Colony, Jerusalem

AN EARLY MANUSCRIPT OF THE BIBLE

The original from which this is copied was found by a German named Tischendorf in a monastery on Mt. Sinai and is for that reason called the Sinaitic Manuscript. It is one of the oldest of all such manuscripts and contains the whole Septuagint and New Testament. Notice how the words run together without spaces between them and thus add to the difficulty of reading and translation.

was one of the earliest missionaries to them. He was born among the Goths, and worked among them over thirty years, earning the title of “Bishop for the Goths.” He translated the Bible into the Gothic speech, except the books of the Kings, which he thought were too warlike. This translation was the beginning of a written language for the Goths.

Patrick, usually called St. Patrick, was another well-known early missionary. He went from a monastery in France over to Ireland in the first half of the fifth century A.D. With remarkable speed he converted the Irish people to Christianity. Soon Ireland

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became the center of missionary work. Missionaries from Ireland preached with wonderful success in northern England and Scotland.

What does St. Patrick's Day commemorate?

One day toward the end of the sixth century Pope Gregory I was struck by the appearance of some children who had been carried to Rome to be sold into slavery. When told that they were



A STATUE OF ST. PATRICK

Ewing Galloway

In this unusual setting on the hill of Tara, in Ireland, is set up this statue of Ireland's great religious hero.

Angles, he remarked, "Not Angles, but angels," and determined that their people should be converted to Christianity. He sent missionaries to England under the lead of the monk Augustine (597), who won many converts in the southern part of the country.¹

¹ When the workers sent from Rome came into conflict with those from Ireland, a council was called at Whitby (664) to decide between them. After listening to the arguments of each side, the king decided that since Peter was the founder of the Church of Rome, and Peter had the keys to heaven, he would accept the work done under St. Peter's authority, because that way seemed to be safer. The missionaries from Ireland then withdrew.

A missionary from England named Bon'iface (680-754) worked for nearly forty years among the people living in Germany and made many converts; but he finally suffered a martyr's death in the Netherlands.

In eastern Europe many conversions were made among peoples of Slavic races by missionaries from the Church at Constantinople. They invented an alphabet for writing Slavic speech and used it to translate parts of the Bible and other religious material. Christians in Russia, Bulgaria, and other Slavic countries, therefore, looked to Constantinople for leadership rather than to Rome.

Important events mentioned in this section are to be found in the time-graphs on pages 189, 191, 203, 250, 205.

Do you think the problems of these early missionaries were more, or less, difficult than those of missionaries in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries? In what other ways than by teaching religious doctrine have missionaries helped people among whom they worked?

The time-chart on pages 8 and 9 indicates the early development of Christianity by the series of arrows cutting through the period of the Roman Empire. When the Empire fell, the Christian Church succeeded to it as the central force in European civilization. Its development went on side by side with the rise of new living conditions and of new nations. As a symbol of Christianity, the two Greek letters which began the name *χρίστος* (Christ), along with alpha and omega, "the first and the last" letters of the Greek alphabet, were often used. (See time-graph, page 9.)

130. The Rise of the Roman Church and the Break with the East.—Five cities—Jerusalem, Antioch, Alexandria, Constantinople, and Rome—became centers of influence in the Christian Church and residences of officials known as *patriarchs*. The Bishop of Rome, since he was the only western patriarch, came to be looked upon in the West as the head of the entire Church. When the power of the emperors in the West weakened and disappeared, people transferred to the Bishop of Rome much of the respect they had felt for the emperor. His place of residence was known as the Holy See. The strength and intelligence of some of the early bishops of Rome added to their prestige. Leo I, for instance, persuaded Attila to spare Rome. (Time-graph, page 191.)

The belief that Peter founded the church at Rome added greatly to its influence. Christ himself said to Peter, "Thou art Peter, and upon this rock I will build my church." If this statement literally meant that Peter was to be the head of Christ's church on earth and that his successors would assume his power, it made the head of the Roman church tremendously important. The title of *Papa* or Father became attached to him. We know this title today as "Pope."



ST. SOPHIA

This is a view of one of the most famous churches in the world, built by Justinian (§ 103), but for many years used as a Mohammedan mosque. Now it is a museum, but is still one of the most famous buildings in Istanbul (old Constantinople).

Just as Rome and Constantinople separated politically, so did they separate religiously. The Patriarch of Constantinople assumed leadership in the East somewhat as the head of the Roman Church in the West had done. As time went on, the eastern and western churches had less and less to do with each other, and in 1054 all connection between them came to an end. (See the time-graph on page 255.) The Greek Church and the Roman Catholic Church are still entirely separate, and differ on numerous points. The Greek Church does not recognize the Pope; it uses immersion as the form of baptism; it allows its priests to marry.

131. The Rise of a Rival Faith. — Now we must go to Arabia and look into the beginning of another of those great religions which have come out of Asia. The Arabs, a Semitic people, were of two groups, the nomads and the city-dwellers. The former, known as Béd'ouins, lived in tents, wandering from oasis to oasis, taking their flocks with them. The other group settled down in cities,



THE INTERIOR OF AN EASTERN ORTHODOX CATHEDRAL

Wide World

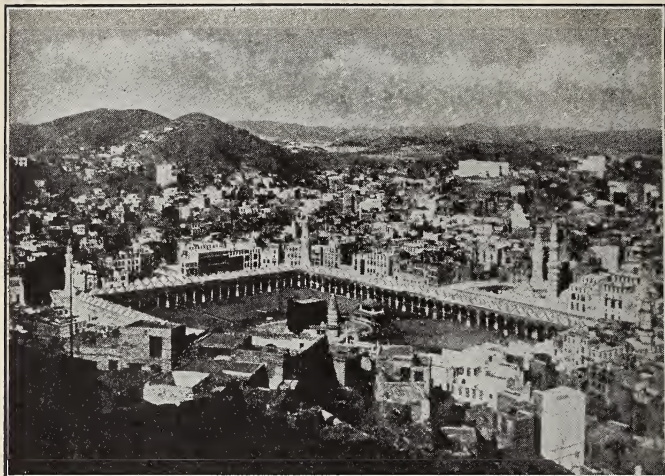
You notice that there are no seats for worshipers here. People stand up during the service. Some of the churches of these eastern European Christians are very beautifully or ornately decorated like this one at Sofia, Bulgaria.

among which were Mec'ca and Medina (me dē'na). Their religious center was a temple in Mecca called the Kāā'ba, containing a black stone long venerated as sacred.

In Mecca about the year 570 was born a boy named Mohammed (also spelled Mahom'et). After he grew up, he became a camel driver. Then he married a rich widow, whose money enabled him to become a rather prosperous merchant. When he reached the age of forty, he became filled with the idea that God was sending him messages to deliver to the Arabians. He declared that he was the last and greatest prophet from the Lord, that those who had gone before, including Christ, had been sent to prepare the

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way for his coming. He converted to his beliefs his wife and a few of his close friends. When he attempted to give the Arabs his messages, they did not take much stock in them. Finally, learning that his life was in danger, Mohammed fled from Mecca to Medina in 622. This flight is known as the *Hegira* (hěj'ira or



THE CITY OF MECCA

Publishers' Photo

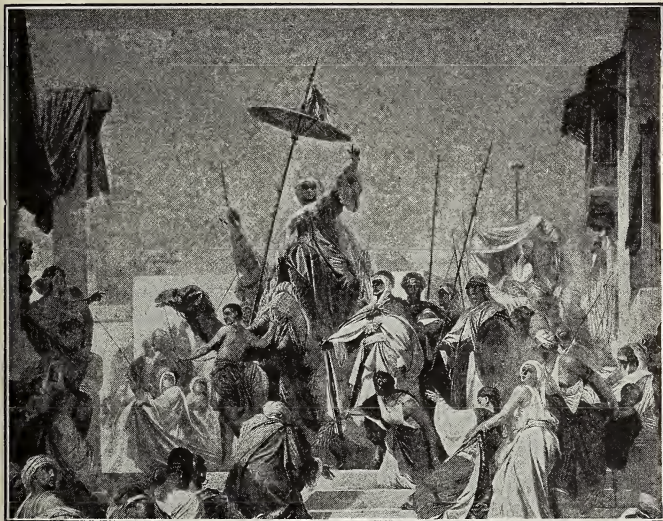
The holy city of Mohammedans as it looks from the east. The famous Kaaba, covered with costly hangings, is in the center of a vast courtyard. Mecca can now be reached by rail and bus from Damascus and by bus from the coast, and a visit to the sacred city is today a much easier undertaking for faithful Mohammedans than formerly.

hěj'ira), and marks the date from which Mohammedans reckon time.

Mohammed's luck changed when he reached Medina. Here he made many powerful friends. When his followers became stronger, he undertook new conquests, among which was the city of Mecca. Before his death (632), just ten years after his flight from Mecca, his religion was accepted very widely among the Arabs.

Under what circumstances might it be easy to start a new religion?

Mohammed's new faith he called *Islam* (iz'lam), a word which means "resignation," and his followers were known as *Mos'lems*, "those who surrender themselves." Just as the cross is the sign of Christianity, so the crescent came to be the symbol of Mohammedanism. The Moslem must not engage in games of chance,



MOHAMMED IN MECCA

The picture shows the artist Muller's idea of the reception given to Mohammed in the city that became the center of the religion he taught. It suggests the respect, honor, and curiosity exhibited by those who observed or listened to him.

eat pork, or indulge in strong drink. Except for the low place given to women, in most respects the teachings of Islam were of higher quality than those of other religions outside the Jewish and Christian.¹ Those who had lived faithful lives, and especially

¹ Five obligations, the "five pillars of Islam," were demanded of every faithful Mohammedan: 1. He must repeat once, aloud, fully understanding it, "There is no God but Allah, and Mohammed is his prophet." 2. He must pray five times a day. 3. He must give alms to the poor and help the widow and orphan. 4. He must fast during every day of Ramadan, the ninth month of the Moslem year. 5. If possible, he must make at least one pilgrimage to the holy city of Mecca.

Mohammed	
Hegira	Death
622	632

Mohammedan conquests		
Egypt	Persia	Northern Africa

<u>Heraclius, Eastern Emperor</u>
610 641

Council of
Whitby (England)
664

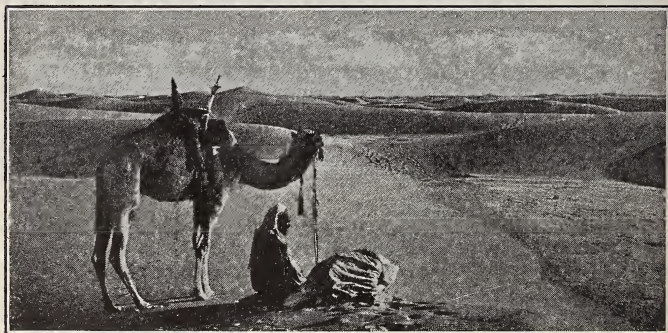
601 A.D.

7TH CENTURY A.D.

700

those who met their death fighting for the faith, would spend eternity in a place of bliss, while terrible torments awaited those who rejected Islam.

The religious book of the Mohammedans is the *Korān'*. It is made up in part of the sayings of Mohammed during his life and is arranged in the order of the length of the utterances or teachings. Many things in it suggest that Mohammed knew the Old and New



PRAYER IN THE DESERT

Wherever the Mohammedan may be, when the hour for prayer arrives, he is supposed to kneel down with his face toward Mecca and offer the customary prayer.

Testaments pretty well. Although many of the mosques are beautiful buildings, religious services are very plain; and much worship is individual rather than by congregations. Friday is the Mohammedan holy day.

132. Mohammedan Conquests and Setbacks. — Something about Mohammed's doctrines and enthusiasm inspired terrible earnestness in those who accepted them. His followers made their way north and east into Syria and Persia and even western India, west into Egypt, and then clear across the wide stretch of northern



THE MOSQUE OF OMAR

We are now told that this is not the proper name for this famous temple, but the name has been attached to it for centuries. It is situated on the hill known as Mt. Moriah. Under its dome is the great rock on which Abraham was supposed to have been ready to offer his son Isaac as a sacrifice. One is sometimes surprised to find how much there is in common in the religious traditions of Jews, Christians, and Mohammedans.

Africa, without serious check. Constantinople held them at bay, however, for several hundred years, though much of the territory of the Eastern Empire was conquered.

Crossing the Strait of Gibraltar, the Mohammedan armies overran Spain and moved north into France. It seemed as if they could not be stopped. But the redoubtable Charles Martel met them in the critical battle of Tours (732). This, just one hundred years after Mohammed's death, was their "high-water mark"

in the West. Defeat here ended their northward advance, and France was saved. In Spain, however, they set up a Moslem kingdom which lasted a long time. There they came to be most often called Moors. (Time-graph, page 205.)

For the extent of the early Mohammedan conquests, see the map following page 206. Since Cairo was not founded until 969, the map shows only its location, but not the name.

What reasons can you think of for the surprising success of the Mohammedans in extending their faith? Is it easier to spread religious teachings by force, by persuasion, or by love? Was Christianity ever spread by the sword?

Frequently any Mohammedans were called "Saracens," though properly the name belongs only to the Arabian followers of Mohammed. Sometimes the Mohammedan conquerors of Christian people gave them three choices, "the Koran, tribute, or the sword." This meant that there need be no wholesale massacres of conquered people; for if Christians did not care to accept Mohammedanism, they could escape by paying tribute. This was a more lenient policy than ancient conquerors generally followed. Millions of people accepted Mohammedanism; and today it has almost a third as many adherents as Christianity.

At Mohammed's death his father-in-law took the title of *caliph* — meaning "successor" or "representative." Later, one caliph had his headquarters at Cor'dova in Spain; another at Cairo in Egypt; and the most famous of all ruled in the renowned city of Bagdad. If you have read the *Arabian Nights*, you know the fame of the court of Haroun-al-Raschid (hä-roon'ä-rasheed') (786-809), who was a contemporary of Charlemagne and exchanged presents with him. His city was then a marvelous center of life and trade. (Time-graphs, pages 205, 207, and 209.)

133. Mohammedan Life and Culture. — Mohammedan standards of life were frequently much ahead of those of western Christian peoples. In Spain Mohammedan civilization shone perhaps at its best. Through the "Moors" Europe became acquainted with many fruits and other foods — oranges, lemons, sugar, melons, dates, sesame. Not until our own day have such features of farming as fertilizing the soil, rotating crops, and the like, been carried further than the Arabs carried them in Spain.

In many kinds of manufactures — muslin, “Morocco” leather, glass, metal, silks, carpets — they were wonderfully skilled. Surely you have heard of “Damascus blades” and “Toledo blades.”

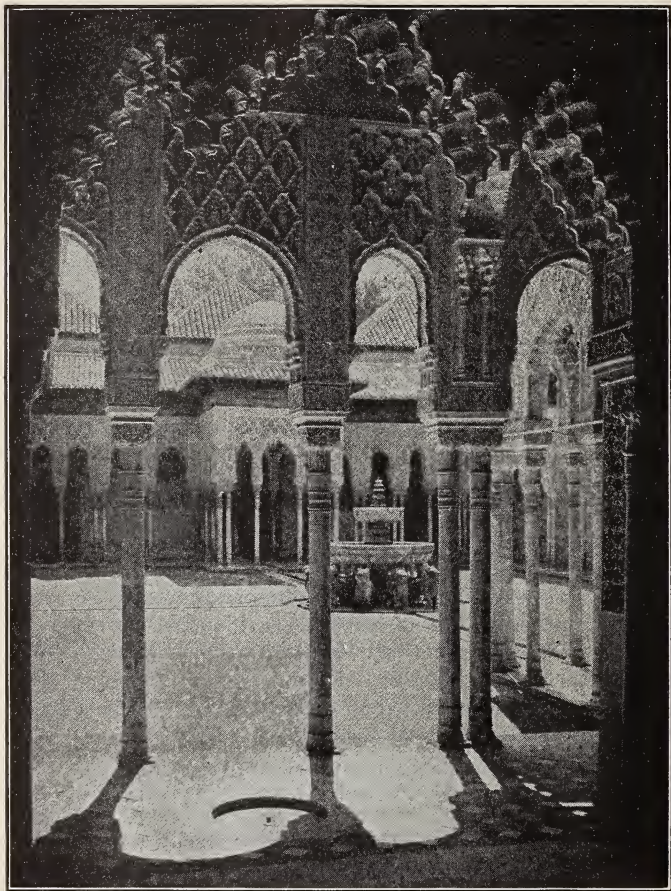
The Arabs made much headway in scientific subjects like mathematics, chemistry, and astronomy. Algebra not only is Arabic in name but also was largely developed by Arabians. The Arabs did not invent our “Arabic” numerals, but they made their use popular, adding the humble but very important 0. There were universities at Cordova, Granä'da, and elsewhere which Christian students were glad to visit. “Moorish” architecture, with its horseshoe-shaped arches, minarets, and other distinctive features, was often strikingly beautiful. The famous palace called the Alhambra, at Granada, in Spain, is one of the most remarkable buildings ever erected. (See page 254.)

Numerous words in our own language come directly from the Moors. Many of those which begin with “al,” such as *almanac*, *alcohol*, and *algebra*, and others such as *cipher*, *damask* (from Damascus), *mattress*, and *zenith*, are of Arabic origin. Christians for a long time called all Mohammedans “infidels,” but they learned something from them, nevertheless.

Toward the end of the eleventh century a sad disaster occurred. The Seljuk (sël-jöök') Turks came down from the northeast and swept over the Mohammedan territories in western Asia. They cared little for the civilization of the Arabs, but were more cruel and even more successful fighters. Bagdad ceased to be a center of culture, and the whole Near East went backward.

Is there any parallel between the overrunning of the Bagdad Empire by the Seljuk Turks and the conquest of Europe by the Germans? Why was the invention of 0 important? Do we owe anything to these Moors of medieval times? What American author wrote extensively about the Alhambra?

134. The Turks in the Holy Land. — We come now to another struggle between East and West, and this time religion entered as perhaps the most powerful motive. Christians today often long to look upon the places where Christ worked and taught. Even more feelingly did Christians in the eighth, ninth, and tenth centuries desire to see the “holy places.” Sometimes they would go singly



THE COURT OF THE LIONS

Perhaps the most famous of all views in the palace of the Alhambra is this court, in which is situated the fountain with its water basin supported by figures of lions. The marvelous carvings in the palace are hardly to be equaled anywhere in this style of architecture.

	Seljuk Turks in the Near East 1058	
	Pope Gregory VII	First Crusade 1096-1099
	Final break of Roman and Greek churches 1054	Henry IV at Canossa 1077
		Rise of universities
Canute, King in 1016 England 1035	Norman conquest of England 1066	
1001 A.D.	11TH CENTURY A.D.	1100

and sometimes in small companies. In some cases such a trip was accepted by the Church as penance for wrongdoing. The Arabs offered little objection to these visits, for Christians who could get to the Holy Land usually had money to spend.

Would people be likely to visit Palestine if there were no historic associations connected with it? Do you suppose it looks today as it did 1900 years ago?

Then the Seljuk Turks came! After they had once been converted to Mohammedanism, they displayed all the old fury and fanaticism of the first Mohammedan conquerors. All sorts of unpleasant treatment were inflicted upon Christian pilgrims. When those who succeeded in getting back to Europe reported their experiences, they stirred up a spirit of wrath.

Do you suppose the Turks had any idea that they would bring on a war of vengeance by their treatment of Christian pilgrims? Compare the circumstances of this struggle between East and West with previous conflicts.

135. Why Men Went on the Crusades. — For nearly two hundred years, not all the time but at intervals, Crusades were going on in some form — campaigns in behalf of the Cross to win back the holy places from the hands of the “infidels.” Religious fervor was the first and most influential of all the reasons for taking part in them. Some were sincerely willing to sacrifice comfort and possibly their lives for the sake of saving the Holy Sepulcher.

Others thought they could improve themselves in some way by going. The Church offered to accept such services as penance for almost any kind of sin. Some who were poor or “out of

luck" thought they could not be worse off through what might happen to them as Crusaders.

But there were other motives less praiseworthy. Sometimes lords and even kings took part in the Crusades because they thought they could gain fame or wealth. Many went simply for the chance of fighting or adventure among strange people. Some went to find out what the East looked like.



CRUSADERS ENTERING JERUSALEM

Godfrey of Bouillon, the leader of the First Crusade, is pictured here entering the Church of the Holy Sepulcher in the Sacred City. The original painting of which this is a copy was made by von Plotz and is now in Munich.

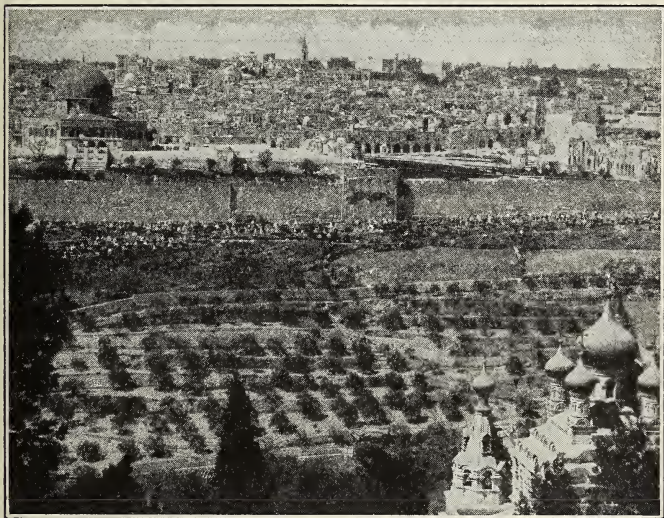
Emperor Alexius at Constantinople, becoming frightened at the prospects of the Turks capturing the city, appealed to the Pope for help. Pope Urban II then presented to a council at Clermont (1095) the idea of rescuing the Holy Places. Wasn't it a shame that they should be in the hands of "infidels"! A fierce wave of enthusiasm spread over the assembly. The Pope's hearers were convinced that they should go and take the Holy Land away from the Turks. "*Deus le volt*"¹ — "God wills it" — they ex-

¹ Neither Latin nor French, as some of you will discover, but the expression shows a new language in process of formation.

claimed. Others, including a preacher known as Peter the Hermit, traveled widely, exhorting men to enlist in the crusade.

If a movement like the Crusades was proposed today, do you think many would join it? Do people have less reverence than formerly for sacred places and persons?

Use the maps following pages 206 and 296 to locate the events mentioned in connection with the Crusades.



JERUSALEM AS IT LOOKS TODAY

Publishers' Photo

This is a view of the holy city of Jews, Christians, and Mohammedans as it looks from the Russian church north of the city. The church itself is in the Garden of Gethsemane. Across the valley you see the so-called Golden Gate, and at the left the site of the temple with the so-called Mosque of Omar. The walls of the city, a part of which you observe, are only a few hundred years old and do not go back to the time of Jesus or King David.

136. Achievements and Failures of the Crusades. — The First Crusade (1096–1099) succeeded in capturing Jerusalem and setting up a Christian kingdom under the leadership of Godfrey of Bouillon (boo-yōn'). But in less than one hundred years the Mohammedans retook the city, and from 1244 until 1917, when

Gothic architecture becoming popular	Compass in use in Europe	Saladin Third Crusade 1189-1192
Concordat of Worms 1122	Frederick Barbarossa (Emperor)	
	1152	1190
Modern languages taking form	Henry II (England)	
	1154	1189
Abelard	Beginnings of juries	
1101 A.D.	12TH CENTURY A.D.	1200

the English under General Allenby took Palestine from the Turks, the Holy Land was entirely in the hands of Mohammedans.

Usually there are listed eight or nine crusades, depending on what one calls a crusade. In the Third Crusade (1189-1192) three monarchs took part — King Richard “the Lion-hearted,” of England; Philip Augustus, of France; and Frederick Barbaros’sa, of Germany. Frederick was drowned in Asia Minor, and Philip went home before anything important was done. King Richard succeeded in making an agreement with Sal’adin, the leader of his opponents, whom the Crusaders much respected, that Christians might be allowed to visit the Holy Land. The Fourth Crusade showed the unworthy motives of some Crusaders, for Venetians, jealous of the commerce of Constantinople, turned the campaign against that *Christian* city. So this crusade actually weakened Constantinople and reduced its power of resisting the advance of the Turks.¹

As far as military accomplishment was concerned, the Crusades were a dismal failure. Yet they may, by keeping the Mohammedans busy in Asia, have saved Europe from more and worse Mohammedan invasions. The loss of life among the Crusaders was fearful. It must have been hundreds of thousands; though, since nobody made any accurate count of those who took part, we can only guess the number of the dead. The Crusades were the

¹ Perhaps the saddest of the Crusades was the so-called Children’s Crusade. Two boys, Stephen of France and Nicholas of Germany, got it into their heads that it was the duty of the children to do what their elders had not been able to accomplish. Thousands of boys and girls, most of them from nine to twelve years old, lost their lives in the vain effort.

Conquests of Genghis Khan	Revival of Maya kingdom (Yucatan)	Marco Polo in Asia
Innocent III, Pope (1198) 1216	Rise of Italian city states	Rudolph of Hapsburg Emperor 1273
Francis of Assisi	(St.) Louis IX (France) 1226	Philip IV (France) 1285
Magna Charta 1215	Aquinas	Model Parliament (England) 1295
	Roger Bacon	
1201 A.D.	13TH CENTURY A.D.	1300

last attempt on any large scale to extend Christianity by military force, or to recover lost Christian territory by such means.

Do you think the Crusades proved that European Christians were poorer fighters than the Turks? Would Christianity be better off if the Crusaders had held Palestine permanently?

137. How the Crusades Affected the World. — In many ways, wholly unforeseen, the Crusades brought about great changes. The Crusaders themselves — those who survived — came back with a better understanding of the world. They came in contact with other people and discovered that they themselves did not know it all. They learned a good deal about geography, and aroused among Europeans a wide interest in unfamiliar parts of the world.

The Crusaders brought back with them many products of the East which western Europe had known little about — spices, precious woods, silks, and other luxuries. Some Crusaders called the East the “vestibule of Paradise.” Spices came into great demand in western Europe. Since people then had no refrigerators, the meat and other things they ate were sometimes in pretty bad condition ; but spices could hide even a very disagreeable taste and smell. So trade with the East sprang up, and new routes of commerce were established, as we have already explained (§ 122).

Another unforeseen result of the Crusades was the weakening of the feudal system. As we have already noticed, feudal lords who wanted to go on the Crusades got money by selling charters and privileges to towns, which sometimes became free cities. The number of feudal knights who went on Crusades was so great that

the humble people had to look up to the kings for order and protection rather than to the lords.

Even the harm done to Constantinople had unexpected effects. Scholars who feared that the city was to be captured went westward to the towns of Italy and other European countries. There they started a new interest in things intellectual.

Do you think of any other great events in history which had far different results from those which were anticipated? Make a list of the results of the Crusades which apply to our own lives today.

138. The Importance of the Church to Medieval Europe. — During these medieval centuries the Church whose center was Rome grew in dignity and authority. Throughout western Europe everybody was presumed to belong to the Christian Church except the Moors and the Jews. It was considered just as natural for a person to be born into the Church as today one becomes an American citizen by being born in the United States.

The medieval Church was a catholic church in the original sense of the word, for *catholic* means "universal" or "all inclusive." One would not think in medieval times of French, Roman, or German churches, but of *the Church*. Everywhere in western Europe Latin was used in church services. All Christians were expected to look up to the Pope as the representative of God on earth.¹

Why do you suppose services of the medieval Church were conducted in Latin?

In spite of its emphasis upon authority in religion, the medieval Church was the most democratic institution of its time. All worshiped in the same forms. The ranks of the clergy were open to men of any class of society, and Church leaders were always looking out for bright young men whom they could train for service. The Church was the one thing in which people of all nations in western Europe felt a common interest.

The medieval Church rendered tremendous social services to the people of its time. It preserved much that was good in the ancient Greek and Roman civilization. Anyone who could read

¹ As we have already noticed, the Eastern Church, whose center was at Constantinople, did not recognize the Pope; and there were probably at almost any time a few in western Europe who objected to some of the doctrines or customs of the established church.

or write was likely to be a monk, priest, or other church officer. The word *cleric*, or "clerk," therefore, came to have two meanings — a person who could either read or write, or a clergyman. The Church often looked after legal matters for its members. It saw to the distribution of a man's property among his heirs. When no other agency was doing so, the Church relieved suffering, aided the needy, and kept alive the light of learning. The parish priest constantly came in touch with every interest of human life and was practically the only person who could do so.

Women in particular owed much to Christianity. In its preaching of the Golden Rule and protection of the weak, and in treating all people on an equality, it helped to raise women from the position of mere household servants and gave them a considerable degree of respect and freedom. The veneration of the Virgin Mary had much to do with this change.

139. Ordinances and Teachings of the Church. — In times of suffering and disorder, people naturally would long for better days, even if in another world. The hope of heaven expressed in such hymns as *Jerusalem the Golden* was enough to attract people who saw very little of that sort of thing on earth. The Church taught that God in His own good time would straighten out all difficulties and relieve all troubles, and that He had sent His son Jesus into the world to give everlasting life to all who believed in Him.

The Church had sacraments for every great event in human life. The seven were known as *baptism*, *confirmation*, *penance*, *the Holy Eucharist*, *extreme unction*, *holy orders*, and *matrimony*. Without baptism no man could be saved, so the Church taught, and without extreme unction no one could leave this life prepared for what was to come afterward. The teachings of the Church rested both on the Scriptures and on custom and tradition. Through the emotions aroused by its dignified ceremonies, swelling music, crucifixes, and other symbols employed in the services, a deep impression could be made, even upon people who couldn't understand a word of the Latin used by the priest. In the Mass, or Eucharistic (yū kâ rist'ic) Sacrifice, the miracle of *transubstantiation* was believed to take place — that is, that the bread and wine used in the ceremony actually became the body and blood of Christ.

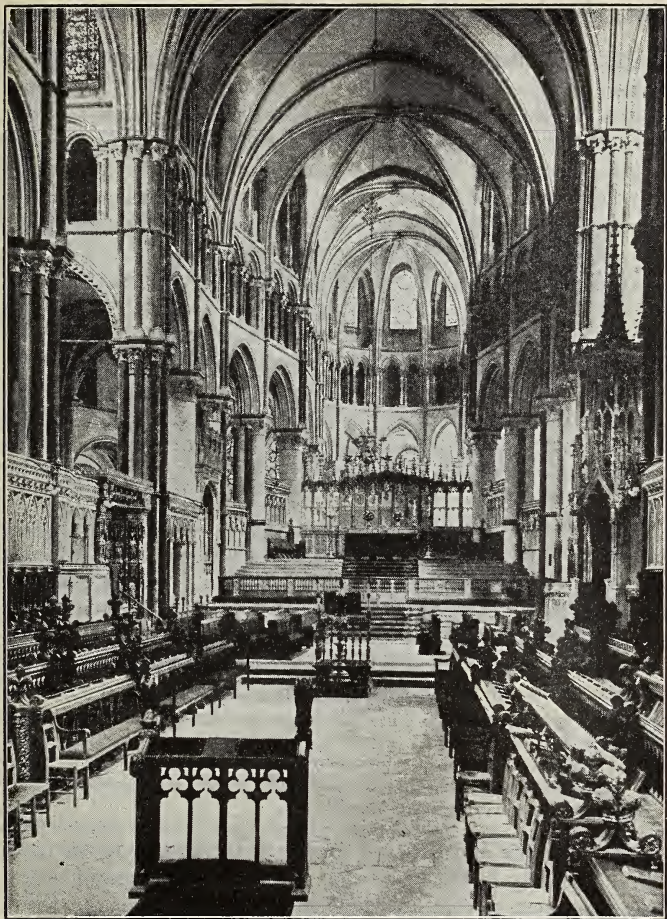
The Church had penalties and weapons to employ against those who disregarded its authority. An individual who defied the Church or conducted himself wickedly might be cut off from all the benefits or services of the Church. This was known as *excommunication*. Occasionally whole communities were denied all the services of the Church, except baptism and extreme unction, by an order known as an *interdict*. Usually this punishment was aimed at the head or ruler of a community, to force his subjects to turn away from him or make him submit to the Pope's authority. *Penance* was supposed to be performed only by those who really repented for wrongdoing, but a priest to whom confession was made could not always tell how sincere the person before him really was.

What is the meaning of the word *sacrament*? If you are not familiar with the meaning of the names of the seven sacraments, find out what each signifies. Was every Christian expected to receive every sacrament?

140. How the Medieval Church Was Governed. — The Church was thoroughly organized. The different countries were divided into *provinces*, each under an *archbishop*. The provinces were divided into *dioceses*, each headed by a *bishop*. The dioceses were composed of *parishes*, with a *priest* as the local church official.

The clergy were either "regular" or "secular." The *regular* clergy, so-called because they were governed by a *regula*, or "rule," lived in special establishments, such as monasteries. The *secular* clergy were those priests whose service was out in the *saeculum*, or "world." All clergymen had their hair cut a special way and wore special robes. They did not consider themselves subjects of any king or country, but solely members of the Church, or "citizens of heaven." They recognized, however, that rulers had rightful authority in "temporal" or worldly matters. The whole system of officials, high and low, was the *hi'erarchy*.

The Pope had complete "spiritual" authority — that is, in matters of religion or morals — and in medieval times that kind of authority was treated as much more far-reaching than at present. Today, for instance, no pope would tell a king what to do in purely political affairs. At times the popes sent out official representatives known as *leg'ates* or *nuncios*. The Pope also issued



THE INTERIOR OF CANTERBURY CATHEDRAL

Ewing Galloway

Canterbury is the location of the oldest Christian church in England founded under Roman auspices, and the highest official in the Church of England today is the Archbishop of Canterbury. The part of the building shown in this picture was erected in 1174, centuries before the Church of England separated from the Pope. Its builder is said to have introduced the Gothic style of architecture (§ 169) into England.

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"bulls," or official edicts, to make known his instructions or decisions.¹

Next to the Pope, in dignity at least, were the *cardinals*, not named from, but famous for, their brilliant red hats and scarlet robes. There were seventy of these in all, who together formed the "college of cardinals." They were mostly Italians, but included men from all the Christian nations. When a pope died, the cardinals elected his successor.

Funds for the Church were obtained by several means. One way was by *tithes* — contributions of one-tenth of a person's income or of the products he raised. A second method was by "Peter's pence," a contribution by each family of a penny a year toward the maintenance of the Church which Peter had founded. A third means was through feudal revenue derived from land held by the Church under the feudal system. At one time it was estimated that one-fourth of the land in western Europe was owned by the Church.

There was also a system of Church courts. These tried all cases of religious offenses, such as heresy and blasphemy, and anything that involved the taking of an oath — making a will or a contract, for example. They also undertook to handle all cases affecting any clergymen, whether they concerned religious offenses or not. At one time anyone who could read Latin could demand trial in a Church court, on the supposition that if he could read Latin he must be a clergyman. This privilege was known as "benefit of clergy."

Make a diagram showing the medieval Church organization. Are there any American cardinals today?

141. The Life and Labor of Monks and Friars. — In the early days, especially in the East, some Christians who desired to live holy lives went to some desolate spot in the woods or the desert where they could keep away from the evil of the world. Sometimes these *hermits* spent much of their time fasting, or praying, or even inflicting pain upon themselves, with the idea that avoiding physical pleasures would help them to think lofty thoughts.

An Italian named Benedict, however, believed that men could

¹ A *bull* was named from the "bullæ," an official seal, attached to it.

be of more benefit to their fellow men by associating with others who were trying to live godly lives or to aid those in need. "Labo-rā'rē est orā'rē," as they said in Latin. In Monte Cassino (cas-sē'no) in Italy he established a famous monastery (529). Though he was not the first to organize such a community, the system



MAKING A MEDIEVAL BOOK

The monk who shows himself copying or writing also drew the original of this picture. Paper, such as we know, had not come into use, and so when the sheets of parchment were put together, they made a volume of considerable size. In the picture you see some of the ink bottles and other materials used in the work.

which he set up became generally practiced by similar institutions in the West and was known as the Rule of St. Benedict. (Time-graph, page 203.)

The monk had to take the threefold vow of "poverty, chastity, and obedience" — he must own nothing for himself, he must never marry, he must do as he was told by his superiors. Each day he had to spend seven hours at some sort of labor and was allowed two hours for reading. The head of a monastery was known as an *abbot*. The monks planted gardens and raised various kinds of food, cared for travelers who needed relief, offered refuge for

the distressed and abused, taught farmers how to do their work better, and copied books, so as to preserve literature and learning. Some of them went out with much success as missionaries to the heathen. Sometimes men of wealth made large gifts to monasteries; and if an institution was well managed, it could easily accumulate considerable property. So sometimes monks were



MODERN MONKS AT WORK

One of these men is mending a sandal worn by the other. Monks in both medieval and modern monasteries may have to be able to do a great variety of things.

tempted to become lazy or careless about their conduct. Much depended upon the character of the abbot in charge.

Do you think the life of a monk was a pleasant one? What was wrong with the notions of the early hermits?

Sometimes the common people got the impression that the Church leaders lived pretty comfortable lives but cared very little for the people. Even the monasteries usually required people to come to them, instead of having monks go out among the

people. One young Italian suddenly turned away from a rather wild life and determined to devote himself to helping the common people. From the place where he lived, he is known as St. Francis of Assisi (assé'zē) (1182-1226). He founded a brotherhood composed of men who would devote their entire lives to helping those in need. Like some of the early followers of Christ, they took no money or extra provisions with them when they went out among people. They wore plain, coarse robes tied around their waists with a rope. Since they depended on what people gave them, they were sometimes called "mendicant," or "begging" friars. (Time-graph, page 259.)

Another order of friars, known as the Domin'icans, was founded

by a Spanish clergyman named Dom'nic (1170-1221).¹ They, too, rendered many services, but their work was largely among the upper class of society and was more in the nature of teaching. As time went on, both these orders of friars gained wealth and lost some of their spiritual devotion. But they accomplished a great deal of good, especially in making the people at large think that the Church was sincerely interested in them.

Would it be possible for the average clergyman or priest to do the kind of work St. Francis undertook? What did the friars do which monks did not, and vice versa?

142. Struggles between Popes and Emperors. — In the year 962, Otto, a German prince, had himself crowned by the Pope, after the fashion of Charlemagne; and this title of "Roman Emperor," called "Holy" because bestowed by religious authority, started more trouble! The idea continued for centuries that just as there was a "church universal," which ought to include all men, there should also be a universal authority to have charge of the other interests of life. Since the Roman Empire, at least under Constantine and for a time afterward, seemed to provide for such a universal rule of both Church and Empire, the name Holy Roman Empire was used to suggest this rather vague notion of a world-wide authority outside the Church. Men sometimes said it was the Pope's duty to rule men's souls and the Emperor's to rule men's bodies. Popes and Emperors could not always draw a



A STATUE OF ST. FRANCIS OF ASSISI

This is a copy of a statue which one may see today in the church of St. Francis in the town which his activities made famous.

¹ The word *friar* comes from the Latin *frater* through the French *frère*, "brother." From the color of their robes, the Franciscans were called the gray friars and the Dominicans the black friars.

clear-cut line between their activities. Take, for instance, the matter of *investiture*. This term refers to the bestowing of the titles and powers of certain religious offices. Since such a position might carry with it the control of considerable land or other property, kings and princes claimed that *they* should bestow the office. The Pope, on the other hand, thought first of the fact that it was a religious office and declared that *he* should confer its title and powers.

Locate the events of this section by referring to the time-graphs on pages 209, 255, 258, and 259.

In the course of one famous dispute over the matter of investiture, Pope Gregory VII, who wanted to reform the Church, excommunicated Emperor Henry IV, and ordered his title to be taken from him. In the middle of the winter (1077), Henry crossed the Alps to Canos'sa, where the Pope was staying, and on three days stood as a penitent in the snow, wearing only a shirt of "sackcloth." Then Gregory relented and gave the Emperor "absolution." After a few years, however, Henry defied Gregory, and came to Rome with an army and had himself crowned Emperor by a Pope whom he had set up himself. Gregory had to leave Rome. He died in 1085. "I have loved righteousness and hated iniquity," he mourned; "therefore I die in exile."

The struggle over investiture was settled after a time by an agreement known as the Concord'at of Worms (vörms) (1122). It was decided that the Church should elect its own abbots and bishops and that the ring and staff which symbolize their religious duties should be presented by the Pope or his representatives. The Emperor, however, was to supervise the elections of Church officials in Germany and present them with the authority which they should exercise outside of religious matters.¹

¹ Similar controversies caused a famous struggle in England. King Henry II (1154-1189), who wanted to govern England well, had a friend named Thomas à Becket, whom he made Archbishop of Canterbury, the highest position in England's church. Becket, however, refused to take orders from Henry. "Will none of the cowards who eat my bread avenge me on this upstart clerk!" exclaimed Henry in wrath, but probably without meaning it. Four knights took him at his word and murdered Becket at the altar in Canterbury. Immediately everybody's sympathy was turned toward Becket. Henry had to do penance for his rash remark. The tomb of Becket at Canterbury became a shrine to which all sorts of people made pilgrimages. (See picture on page 313.)

Pope Innocent III (1198-1216) was perhaps as famous as Gregory for his ability and his attempts to establish the authority of the Popes over temporal rulers as well as over the Church. In two cases he went so far as to put under an interdict an entire country. By this means he compelled Philip Augustus of France to take back a divorced wife, and humbled the unworthy King John of England. John even had to turn England over to the Pope's representative, Stephen Langton, and receive it back as a vassal of the Pope. Few Popes had anything like the ability of Gregory VII or Pope Innocent III, and after this time the power of the Popes never reached quite so high a mark again.

Was the settlement of the investiture question at Worms fair? Would it be possible for any similar disagreement to arise today?

IDEAS TO STAY WITH US

Christianity began humbly and plainly with the work of Christ and his Apostles in Palestine at a time when the world was ready as never before for the preaching of a new religion.

The motives and teachings of the Christians were misunderstood, and some bitter persecutions occurred.

Constantine favored Christianity, made it the religion of his court, and granted it entire relief from persecution. Later emperors forbade other religions; and Christianity became closely linked with the government itself.

Besides the authors of the writings now included in the New Testament, other able men published books and sermons. Jerome translated the Old and New Testaments into the Latin version called the *Vulgate*.

The separation of the Roman Empire into two parts helped to divide the Christian Church. Both eastern and western churches, however, played their part in carrying Christianity to the "barbarians."

The expansion of Christianity was noticeably checked by the rise of Mohammedanism. This religion spread rapidly over western Asia and Africa and threatened Europe, but was stopped in the West at the battle of Tours in 732 and in the East for some centuries at Constantinople.

When the Turks took the place of the Arabs in control of western Asia, they interfered with the pilgrimages of Christians to the Holy Land. Then followed Crusades to win back the Holy Land from the "infidels."

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The Crusades did not succeed in their direct purpose, but had many unexpected results, especially in developing commerce and trade and an interest in the East on the part of Europeans.



POPE PIUS XII

The Pope is being carried to the Basilica of St. Paul's, on the outskirts of Rome, to officiate at an ecclesiastical ceremony.

The western Church, centered in Rome with the Pope as its head, built up a strong and thorough organization with a hierarchy, whose form in general continues in the Roman Catholic Church of today. Popes claimed religious authority over men of all ranks, including kings and emperors, and the ablest of them frequently succeeded in maintaining that position.

The medieval Church rendered great service to civilization in many ways — as a bond of union among Christians, in the relief of suffering and distress, in the preservation of culture and learning, and in the setting up of worthy ideals of living.

NAMES AND TERMS WE SHOULD UNDERSTAND

- | | | |
|--------------------|--------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. Jesus | 16. Benedict | 31. Mosque |
| 2. Apostles | 17. Monastery | 32. <i>Arabian Nights</i> |
| 3. Messiah | 18. New Testament | 33. Arabic numerals |
| 4. Christian | 19. <i>Vulgate</i> | 34. Moors |
| 5. Pagan | 20. Greek Orthodox | 35. Crusade |
| 6. Paul | 21. Ulfilas | 36. Seljuk Turks |
| 7. Catacombs | 22. Patrick | 37. Saladin |
| 8. Edict of Milan | 23. Bedouin | 38. Hierarchy |
| 9. Theodosius | 24. Mohammed | 39. Cardinal |
| 10. Orthodox | 25. Hegira | 40. Archbishop |
| 11. Nicene Creed | 26. Allah | 41. Bishop |
| 12. Patriarch | 27. Koran | 42. Diocese |
| 13. Bishop of Rome | 28. Islam | 43. Abbot |
| 14. Pope; Papacy | 29. Moslem | 44. Priest |
| 15. Holy See | 30. Caliph | 45. Parish |

- | | | |
|------------------------|------------------------------|------------------------|
| 46. Regular | 52. Francis of Assisi | 56. Otto the Great |
| 47. Secular | 53. Franciscans; Gray Friars | 57. Pope Gregory VII |
| 48. Seven sacraments | 54. Dominicans; Black Friars | 58. Henry IV (Emperor) |
| 49. Transubstantiation | 55. Holy Roman Empire | 59. Investiture |
| 50. Excommunication | | |
| 51. Interdict | | |

DATES WORTH REMEMBERING

- | | |
|-------------------------------|--------------------------|
| 4 B.C. Birth of Christ | 622 Flight of Mohammed |
| 29 A.D. Crucifixion of Christ | 732 Battle of Tours |
| 313 Edict of Milan | 1077 Henry IV at Canossa |
| 325 Council of Nicaea | 1096-1099 First Crusade |

INTERESTING SUBJECTS YOU MAY LIKE TO KNOW ABOUT

- A Biography of Jesus (as of any character in history, without reference to theology)
- The Apostle Paul and His Accomplishments
- Persecutions of the Early Christians
- Famous Hermits and "Holy Men"
- Famous Early Popes
- The Story of St. Patrick
- The Story of St. Sophia (illustrated with pictures, if possible)
- Notable Examples of Moorish Architecture (illustrated, if possible)
- The Books and Authors of the New Testament
- The *Vulgate* and Its Translator
- Differences between the Roman Catholic Church and the Greek Church
- The Life of Mohammed
- The Koran and Its Teachings
- Mohammedan Civilization at Its Best
- The Story of the First Crusade
- The Story of the Third Crusade
- The Children's Crusade
- Military Orders Founded during the Crusades
- The Everyday Life of a Medieval Parish Priest
- Life in a Medieval Monastery
- The Work of Francis of Assisi

INTERESTING PROJECTS YOU MAY LIKE TO UNDERTAKE

1. On the map of Europe which you drew in connection with the last unit, or on a separate map (the latter would be better), locate the places mentioned in this unit, the routes followed on the First Crusade, the Third Crusade, and any others in which you are especially interested; the extent of Mohammedan and Christian territory at a definite date, as 750 or 800 or 1200.

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2. A conversation between: intelligent Greeks or Romans in the second century A.D., discussing Christianity and the other religions of the time; Paul and an intelligent non-Christian at Rome; Ulfilas and an unconverted Goth.

3. A diary of a Christian in the time of Domitian, Diocletian, or Constantine.

4. A dramatization of one or more of the following: the Council of Whitby; the controversy between Pope Gregory VII and Emperor Henry IV; a day in Bagdad with Haroun-al-Raschid; a dialogue between returned Crusaders; the meeting between Richard the Lion-Hearted and Saladin.

5. Make sketches or models of catacombs, the buildings and grounds of a monastery, a Crusader's outfit.

6. Draw a poster urging people to go on a Crusade.

7. Arrange a debate on one of the following topics: Resolved, that the acceptance of Christianity as a state religion was more of a detriment than a help to Christianity; Resolved, that the Crusades were on the whole a worthwhile enterprise.

8. Do not write in this book, but on a sheet of paper work out a comparative table of notable religious leaders in the following form:

TEACHER	TIME	IDEA OF GOD	TREATMENT OF FELLOW MEN	SPECIAL TEACHINGS
Moses				
Buddha				
Confucius				
Zoroaster				
Jesus				
Mohammed				

9. Write an imaginary diary as it might have been written by a Crusader.

10. Continue your Chart of Trends in World Progress.

PLACES FOR FURTHER READING

Adams, *Civilization during the Middle Ages*, III, X, XI

Archer and Kingsford, *The Crusades*

Davis, *Readings in Ancient History*, Rome, 219-222, IX, XI

Emerton, *Introduction to the Middle Ages*, IX-XI

Jessopp, *The Coming of the Friars*, III

The Koran

Munro, *Source Book of Roman History*, X

Ogg, *Source Book of Medieval History*, 72-104, XV-XVII, XXII

Robinson, *Readings in European History*

Tappan, *Heroes of the Middle Ages*, VII, XII

Tappan, *In Feudal Times*, VIII

Webster, *Readings in Medieval and Modern History*, II-VI, X, XI-XIII

Wells, *Outline of History*, XXIX, XXXI, XXXII

Coulton, *Life in the Middle Ages*

Cutts, *Parish Priests and Their People*

Davis, *Short History of the Near East*

Dibble, *Mohammed*

Allinson, *Children of the Way*

Church, *To the Lions*

Crawford, *Via Crucis*

Davis, *God Wills It*

Field, *Tales of the Caliphs*

Hale, *In His Name*

Henty, *For the Temple*

Jewett, *God's Troubadour*

Laboulaye, *The Quest of the Four-Leaved Clover*

Egan, *Everybody's St. Francis*

Gilman, *Story of the Saracens*

Lane-Poole, *Saladin*

Miller, *Saul of Tarsus*

Miller, *The Third Crusade* (Jewish viewpoint)

Scott, *The Talisman*

Sienkiewicz, *Quo Vadis*

Stein, *Our Little Crusader Cousin*

Story, *The Young Crusader*

Van Dyke, *The First Christmas Tree*

Wallace, *Ben Hur*



EARLY CHRISTIAN MOSAICS BROUGHT TO LIGHT

Wide World

In the famous Church of St. Sophia may be seen today such mosaics as those shown in this picture. For centuries they were covered by coats of whitewash and paint, put there by Mohammedans after they entered Constantinople, to cover up the scenes constructed many years before by Christian artists. This picture represents Emperor Constantine kneeling before Christ on his throne. The Virgin Mary and the angel Gabriel also are shown in the picture.



A SCENE FROM THE BATTLE OF HASTINGS

In this representation of some of the events of William the Conqueror's victory over the Saxons in 1066 you get some impression of the way the fighting men were armed and equipped. At the top of the picture are shown vultures and wolves waiting for a chance to get at the bodies of those who were killed in the battle. This scene is taken from the Bayeux Tapestry, a strip of linen 20 inches wide and 230 feet long, on which William the Conqueror's wife and the ladies associated with her embroidered many scenes connected with William's invasion of England.

VII. THE BEGINNINGS OF MODERN NATIONS

"Nations are the citizens of humanity as individuals are the citizens of a nation." — MAZZINI

We are tracing side by side three phases of the development of Europe in the Middle Ages — social and economic life, religion, and government. If we could show the map of Europe like a movie, with the territories and boundaries of nations appearing on it and then fading out or changing, we could recognize early the beginnings of the countries on the map of Europe today. Surely it will be interesting to see how these modern nations began to take form.

Pointers for Our Study:

What effect did the natural features of Europe's geography produce upon its history?

In what countries of Europe whose origin dates back to the Middle Ages are we most interested, and why?

How did government in England develop, and how did it come more and more to be concerned with the liberties of the people?

What other countries in western Europe developed strong governments during this period, and who were some of their notable rulers?

Why did Germany and Italy fail to become united?

Why did eastern Europe have little part in the great changes that went on in the western part of the continent?

143. How Geography Helped to Write European History. — You have already noticed on the map of Europe the boot which is Italy and the peninsulas which are Greece and Spain. Regions

like those seem intended to form separate nations. Italy and Spain also have mountains on the north as another kind of boundary or natural defense.

Look also at France. On the south the Mediterranean and the Pyrenees, on the west the Atlantic Ocean, on the northwest the English Channel, on the southeast the Alps. Here, plainly enough, were boundaries for another nation. Only on the north and northeast of France was Nature careless, for there she put nothing harder to cross than the River Rhine as the boundary.

Now look at England,

"This fortress built by Nature for herself
Against infection and the hand of war,"

as Shakespeare describes it. The English Channel and the North Sea still seem dreadful to an uneasy sailor, though they did not prevent the hardy Northmen, who could travel on any kind of water, from playing a big part in English history. Because of England's island position, her enemies, until lately, could come only on the sea. To defend herself there, she built a navy, which in time became the greatest in the world; and later she needed the greatest commercial fleet in the world to carry her many purchases and products.

Now turn to Germany. Here was a nation with few natural boundaries north, south, east, or west, except the Baltic and the North Seas, and with no distinct geographical divisions within the country. So there was plenty of opportunity for internal disputes among German princes and wars between Germans and their neighbors.

Review and verify these geographical facts by referring to the maps following pages 206 and 296.

From your study of European geography, recall other examples of the effect of natural conditions on the development of European nations. As you look at affairs in Europe today, do you see any signs of the effect of geography upon the relations of European countries to one another?

144. What English History Means to American Citizens. — Though many parts of the world have contributed to the progress of the people of the United States, England's part is by far the greatest of any nation. Good Americans, therefore, should understand this fact.

Where did they get their language but from England? Where did their ideas of government come from but from England? True, they decided not to have any king; but almost every important idea in their government can be traced back to an English beginning. When Americans point with pride to the rights and liberties they enjoy, they mean rights which people in England once fought to preserve for themselves, and the germ of which was brought to England by the invading Angles and Saxons. Most of the original colonies on the Atlantic coast were founded by Englishmen. Things have not always been pleasant between the daughter and the mother country, but in the long run it is to their brothers and sisters in England that Americans have found it easiest to extend "hands across the sea."

Does the use of the same language and ideas of government tend toward understanding and friendliness between nations? Are there any important features in the government of the United States which did not have some parallel in the English government?

145. How Britain Became England. — You remember that Julius Caesar visited the island called "Britan'nia," or "Britain," and that in the reign of Claudius the Romans added part of it to their Empire. But their stay, though it lasted well beyond three hundred years (43-410), had no great lasting effect there. They left behind them the names of a number of towns and of the months of the year and the remains of some roads, aqueducts, and walls, but not very much else. Roman soldiers had taken upon themselves the whole burden of protecting the people. Then, after Rome itself was threatened by invaders from the German tribes, Roman soldiers were called home and the people of Britain left to their own resources. (Time-graphs, pp. 161, 164, 191.)

Picts and Scots, wild tribes from the northern part of the island, invaded Britain and made themselves so much of a nuisance that a king in the southeastern part of the island invited over from the continent a band of Jutes to help him. The Jutes came — and stayed; and their relatives, the Angles and Saxons, came over, too, without being invited, and stayed. From the year 449, when the first band of Jutes arrived, these invaders kept coming for a century and a half, and then had all of what we call England under their control. Many of the Britons were slaughtered; some fled

for their lives to the north; some went into Wales; and some crossed the Channel to the region which became the province of Brittany, in France. Few traces of the original language or life



ENGLAND, 600-1300 A.D.

Some towns of a later period are also shown. The extent of Teutonic conquest down to about 800 is indicated by dark shading.

of the native Britons were left in those regions which the conquerors occupied. They even gave their name to the country itself, for *England* is simply *Angleland* — “the land of the Angles.”

Do you suppose the Angles and Saxons would have come anyway at some time? Remember that they were simply another part of the Teutonic tribes that invaded the main portion of the Roman Empire. Do you see why there are a Welsh language and an Irish language?

146. England under Saxon Rulers. — Though the Angles gave their name to the whole country, the Saxons put their stamp upon



Ewing Galloway

ALFRED THE GREAT

This statue stands in the market place of Wantage, in Berkshire, the town where Alfred was born in 849. The scroll in his hand signifies the law under which he ruled, and the ax the fighting power he wielded.

known as Danes (§ 110). At first they were satisfied to plunder the coast towns, but later they carried their raids farther and farther inland.

Toward the end of the ninth century England was blessed by a king who successfully checked the Danes. This was King Alfred, the only English monarch spoken of as "the Great." He ruled for about thirty years (871-900). Though he could not drive out the Danes, he succeeded in making a treaty with them by which they

the geography of many districts. Several separate kingdoms among the Angles and Saxons were named after their location, as Wessex for the West Saxons, Essex for the East Saxons, Sussex for the South Saxons. About 827, King Egbert, of Wessex, brought all the rest of the kingdoms to recognize his leadership and thus made himself the first king of all England. He spent several years with Charlemagne, and may have received some ideas about government while there. (Time-graphs, pages 203, 250, 205, 207.)

Even before the time of Egbert, England was annoyed by another set of invaders, beginning about 787. These were the Northmen, or Vikings, in England usually

agreed to remain in the northeastern part of the country, which came to be known as the *Danelaw*. There, names of places and other signs tell today of their occupation. (Time-graph, page 207.)

Alfred realized how ignorant and poor most of his people were. He learned Latin so that he could translate Latin books into English and give his people the benefit of them. He went around among the people just like one of them, and they learned to love and respect him. He established law and order and built schools, churches, and monasteries. The little ships he constructed were the beginning of England's great navy.

The Saxon kings after Alfred's time included some good ones and some poor ones. The Danes continued to be able to force some of the Saxon kings to pay them tribute, called *Danegeld*. One Danish chief named Sweyn (swain) actually conquered the whole country. His son Cānūte' (page 255) ruled over not only England but Denmark and Norway also, and did it well (1016-1035).

A few years later (1042-1066) the throne was held by a king known, because he was very religious, as "Edward the Confessor." Many monasteries and churches were founded during his time. Most noteworthy of these was the predecessor of the present Westminster Abbey, the most renowned church of England. The Abbey has become not only the burial place of many of the nation's heroes in peace and war, but a sort of national shrine as well.

In Saxon England the kings were elected by the popular leaders, who were known as the *Wit'an*. Do you think it would have been better if there had been a hereditary kingship? Among the many legends connected with early England are those centering around King Arthur. Tennyson has told about them in his *Idylls of the King*. You will be interested in some of them

147. Norman Kings in England. — When Edward the Confessor died, the Witan elected as his successor a brave Saxon named Harold. This election stirred up a storm on the south side of the English Channel. William, Duke of Normandy, claimed that he should be the king of England. He was a cousin of Edward the Confessor and declared that Edward had promised him the throne. Besides, once when Harold had been shipwrecked and taken care of by William, William had made Harold swear to support him for the throne of England. Of course

neither of these promises meant very much, because it had been the custom for the Saxon nobles to elect their own king. But William was in the habit of getting what he wanted!

He brought together a big army and crossed the Channel to invade England. Harold meanwhile was having other troubles, for his own brother was trying to get the crown away from him.



WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR

This is a copy of a print made in London about 150 years ago.

He had hardly succeeded in beating this rival when William landed on the coast at Hastings. Harold hastened south to meet him, and a great battle was fought there in the year 1066. Harold was killed, and William had himself elected and crowned as king.

Soon he had made himself master of all England. He gave his Norman followers land in different sections, built castles at many strategic points, and set up the strongest government England had yet known. William established a feudal system in England considerably different from that which prevailed usually on the

continent. He took a great census of all the people and all the property in England which was entered in what they called the *Doomsday*, or *Domesday Book* because, it was said, like doomsday, it missed nobody. Then he called all the landholders of England to meet him at Salisbury (sals'bury) Plain (1086) and swear allegiance directly to him as the center of authority. Sixty thousand landholders took this Salisbury Oath.

William was succeeded (1087) by his son, William Rufus, a selfish, cruel tyrant. When he was found dead in the New Forest, a sort of private hunting ground, there was considerable quiet rejoicing. Henry I, another son of the Conqueror, then became king and gave England an excellent rule for thirty-five years

(1100–1135). In the first year of his reign he issued a *Charter of Liberties*, which stated some of the rights which the people might claim for themselves.

Many and great were the effects of this Norman conquest. Some call 1066 the most important single date in English history. In the first place, it brought the last great new element into the makeup of the population of England. Though at first conquerors and conquered did not mingle more than was necessary, the barriers between them broke down, so that the poet very truly said of the English people, "Saxon, Norman, and Dane are we." Norman customs and social life were extensively introduced. The Norman-French language, which was derived from the Latin, brought into our English language directly or indirectly a vast number of the words in our dictionaries.

The conquest also brought England into closer relations with Europe. William and several of his successors were Dukes of Normandy at the same time they were Kings of England. Trade with Normandy, and afterward with other parts of the continent, greatly increased after the conquest. The English church was brought more closely under the Pope than it had been before. The Normans in their way were deeply religious, and under their rule a number of fine cathedrals were built in the chief towns of England.

Tie up the Norman conquest with events on the continent by referring to the time-graph on page 255. Use the maps facing page 289 in studying England's relations with the continent in medieval times.

Which is better for a country — to have an able king who rules with a strong hand or a ruler chosen by the people who has to depend upon others for the government of his country?

148. The Beginnings of Some of Our Safeguards of Liberty. — One of the many striking stanzas which we owe to Kipling runs as follows :

"All we have of freedom, all we use or know,
This our fathers bought for us long and long ago;
Ancient right unnoticed as the breath we draw,
Leave to live by no man's leave underneath the law."

Today we take most of these rights for granted — freedom in our homes, trial in honest courts, and no taxation without representa-

tion, for example. But they did not always exist. Some of these principles began to take definite form in the reign of King Henry II (1154–1189). He was the first of a line of kings known as Plantag'enets, so called because this branch of the royal family used the broom plant (*planta genesta*) as a badge.

Henry II had his own royal judges travel around hearing cases which would otherwise have been tried in the courts of feudal lords or local justices. Thus he put the king's law and justice first in the country. When the king's judges came to a certain county, a body of men had to tell what crimes had been committed in their district and who were suspected of committing them. There you have the germ of our *grand jury*. For some questions Henry provided that twelve men of a certain district should under oath decide "to the best of their knowledge and belief" the truth in regard to cases which they were asked to consider. There was the germ of our *petit jury*, though our petit jurors do not give testimony but simply hear it. (Time-graph, page 258.)

Henry II was followed by Richard Cœur de Lion (ker de lēōn'), or "the Lion-Hearted" (1189–1199), who was much more famous than he really deserved to be. As a king of England, he was most of the time on the absent list. You remember he spent several years on the Third Crusade, and during only one of the ten years when he was supposed to rule was he in his own country.

But the worst was yet to come! Richard's brother John succeeded him. During his reign (1199–1216) misfortune after misfortune came to England. Normandy was lost to the King of France, Philip Augustus. In a prolonged struggle between John and Pope Innocent III, England suffered for three years under an interdict proclaimed by the Pope. Worst of all, perhaps, was John's continual disregard of the legal rights of anybody and everybody in the country.

Yet John's tyranny led to the drawing up of the most famous "liberty document" in English history — the *Great Charter*, or *Magna Charta*. The English barons, led by Stephen Langton, Archbishop of Canterbury, simply refused to stand for John's misgovernment any longer. They met John at Run'nymede, on the Thames, and forced him to sign this famous Charter, June 15, 1215. John did so rather than lose his throne, but in the remaining

years of his life he showed very plainly that he had no other reason for accepting it. (Time-graph, page 259.)

A mighty precedent had been established, however — that a king could be compelled to respect the liberties of his subjects. In the Great Charter the king was required to agree, among other things: "To no man will we sell, to no man will we deny or delay right or justice." "No free man shall be taken or imprisoned or dispossessed or outlawed or banished or in any way destroyed, nor will we go upon him, nor send upon him, unless by the verdict of his peers or the law of the land." Perhaps even the leaders who won the Great Charter did not realize how much it meant; but the people of England assumed that all classes and not merely clergy and nobles were entitled to the protection of their rights.

Why do you suppose some kings made themselves such disgusting tyrants? Would they have been more popular and successful if they had treated their people fairly? Why do you suppose Richard gained so much fame in history if he was not worth much as a king?

149. King, Lords, and Commons. — The development of English law-making ought to be of special interest to us. The Witan, or "wise men," who advised the king in Saxon days, were followed, under the Norman kings, by the *Great Council*, composed of the chief nobles and churchmen. The Council expected to be consulted when the king wished to collect any special taxes.

In the reign of King Henry III (1216-1272) some of the old abuses of John's time reappeared. The leader of the barons, Simon de Montfort, called together a Council or Parliament which included in its membership not only the barons and chief churchmen but two representatives from each shire, or county, and from each town (1265). He wanted all classes of the people to be represented, so as to add more weight to their demands.

Simon de Montfort's Parliament had no legal authority, but it set a notable example. Thirty years later (1295) King Edward I (1272-1307), who succeeded Henry III, adopted Simon's plan as the basis of a Parliament, which, being summoned by the King, was perfectly regular. From this time on, all Parliaments included representatives of the shires, or counties, and boroughs, or towns, as well as the nobles and clergy; and this one of 1295 became known as the *Model Parliament*. (Time-graph, page 259.)

For a number of years the lords, churchmen, and representatives of other classes met in one body; but they were not comfortable together. So by 1340 they had begun to meet in two separate bodies, or houses — the *House of Lords*, consisting of the high clergy, dukes, lords, and barons; and the *House of Commons*, composed of the representatives of the shires and boroughs. This “bicameral” division became permanent, and the English Parliament’s two houses are copied in most national law-making bodies today.

Edward II (1307–1327) was so worthless that Parliament decided to take the throne from him and bestow it upon his son. What a change, when Parliament not only demanded to be consulted in levying taxes but could even throw a king out of office! Kings at one time thought they had all power; then lords came to think they were greater than kings; and today the people of England and the United States know that they are bigger than any lords or kings.

Would Parliament make the greatest gains in power under good kings or bad ones? In a country whose Parliament is not made up of distinct classes of people is there any advantage in having law-making bodies divided into two houses? Why is the United States Congress organized in that way?

150. English Kings and Their Neighbors. — Sometimes we may need to be careful about using geographic names. Some people say *England* when they really mean *Great Britain*; for England today is just one part of the island of Great Britain, which also includes Scotland and Wales. Some, too, say *England* when they mean the British Commonwealth of Nations, often referred to as the British Empire; but that includes all the lands under the British flag anywhere.

Henry II became interested in Ireland, which had never had a strong central government. Native chiefs fought among themselves and Norman lords helped themselves to Irish land. So much disorder prevailed that Henry II sent soldiers over to Ireland (1172). They occupied only a small district near Dublin; but they held it from that time on. To protect themselves from the Irish, who were not pleased to have them there, they built a palisade around the territory, and the district inside became known as the Pale.



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KING JOHN SEALING THE MAGNA CARTA, A.D. 1215.

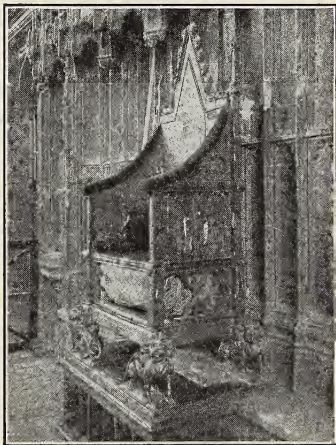
From a painting in the Royal Exchange by Ernest Normand.

Thus began seven centuries and more of unpleasantness between England and Ireland. (Time-graph, pages 258, 259.)

The same King Edward I who called the Model Parliament wanted to extend England's authority over all Great Britain. He marched into Wales; and though the Welsh people held out for a considerable time in their hills, their leader, Llewel'lyn, was betrayed and killed (1284).¹

Edward I also tried to get control of Scotland. Under the lead of the brave William Wallace, the Scots resisted him, but without success. He carried back to England the famous Stone of Scone, on which Scottish kings had always been crowned, and put it in the coronation chair of the English kings in Westminster Abbey. After the death of Edward I, the Scots rose in rebellion under the lead of Robert Bruce. After many discouraging experiences he finally got together an army and defeated the troops of Edward II at Ban'nockburn (1314). This defeat really ended English rule in Scotland, and in 1328 the English government openly recognized Scottish independence. Scotland continued to be a separate kingdom for a long time.

Today both Scotchmen and Englishmen are free citizens of Great Britain and loyal to the British flag. Why do you suppose the relations



Publishers' Photo

THE CORONATION CHAIR OF THE KINGS
OF ENGLAND

This chair stands in Westminster Abbey between the rare occasions when it is used for crowning a new monarch. Under the seat is the famous Stone of Scone, on which the Kings of Scotland sat when they were crowned centuries ago.

¹ To get the good will of the Welsh, Edward told them that he would give them a prince who was born in Wales and who had never spoken a word of English. Then he presented to them his son, who had been born just a little while before and who had never spoken a word in any language. From that day to this the king's oldest son, if there was one, has been known as the Prince of Wales.

between England and Ireland have not been equally cordial? Can you name a Welshman and a Scotchman who have been prime ministers in Great Britain in the present century? What songs do you know that suggest the patriotic spirit which Welshmen and Scots have felt toward their own country?

151. How France Began to Take Form. — You remember that by the Treaty of Verdun (843) one of Charlemagne's grandsons received much of the territory we today know as France. This region, however, was by no means the home of a united nation. Dukes and lords and other personages with feudal titles ruled over numerous patches of it in their own name.

Nearly a century and a half after that famous treaty, a new line of kings took the throne of France. In 987 Hugh Capet (capě') was recognized as king. For over three centuries the title was passed directly from father to son without interruption. For 800 years, in fact, some member of the Cape'tian family was on the French throne. (Time-graphs, pages 207 and 209.)

Hugh Capet, however, no more ruled all of France than did his predecessors. Just a little piece of country around Paris was actually under his direct authority. As the years went on, though, the French kings widened their power steadily and brought various dukes and counts under control. We have already seen how one of them, a Duke of Normandy, went over and made himself King of England. Other districts which became provinces of the kingdom in the course of time included Brit'tany, Anjou (än-zhoo), Aquitaine, Bur'gundy, Toulouse', Champagne (shampane'), and Flan'ders.

Why would there be an advantage to a royal family that was able to pass the throne directly from father to son for a long time? Do you see any likeness between the way Saxon England came together and the early stages in the unification of France?

152. Kings Who Made France Strong. — *Kings* built France into a strong power, for there was little or no unity among the French *people*. French kings had to struggle not only against French foes, but against the kings of England who held considerable territory in France under some kind of feudal relationship and who even laid claim to the throne of France itself.

Three kings during a period of a little more than a century and a quarter not only strengthened royal power in France, but made

the royal government solid with the people. Philip Augustus, who ruled from 1180 to 1223, put an end to the doing of homage by French kings to anyone for feudal land. He substituted royal officials for feudal lords in the government of the country, and annexed fief after fief to his own territory. Philip also took the provinces of Normandy and Anjou from King John of England. He stretched his own domains to the ocean on the west and to the Mediterranean Sea on the south. Philip Augustus failed in only one venture; he had divorced his wife, but Pope Innocent III compelled him to take her back. (Time-graph, page 259.)

Louis IX (1226-1270) reminds us of Alfred of England. So fine a reputation did he build up that the Pope made him "St. Louis." French boys and girls who study history are shown pictures of Louis under an oak tree at Vincennes (vincenz') hearing the stories of people who came to him with disputes to settle. He gave hours and years of his time to efforts to establish peace and justice among his people. His

own life he tried to make a model. His religious zeal finally carried him into a crusade in northern Africa, in the course of which he met his death. (Time-graph, page 259.)

Philip IV (1285-1314), most often called "the Fair," was another able king. He extended the power and territory of the French king, and, since during his reign some of the Popes moved to Avignon (ävēnyōn') in southern France, he exercised influence even over them. Strong government cost money, as it always does. To meet his



LOUIS IX ADMINISTERING JUSTICE

The artist Rouget painted this picture of the French king, afterward made a saint, engaged in one of the difficult and unpleasant duties of his office. Near the right of the picture is the queen praying for him that his decisions may be wise.

expenses, Philip collected heavy fines from lawbreakers and developed a sort of national taxation. (Time-graphs, pp. 259 and 289.)

To get approval for this taxation, he summoned in 1302 the first assembly in the history of France that was supposed to represent the people. It was known as the Estates-General, and included representatives of the three "estates" or classes — the clergy, the nobles, and the rest of the people. Does this remind you of anything then happening in England? The Estates-General met off and on at the king's call for three centuries, but it never developed anything like the power which the Parliament in England ultimately gained.

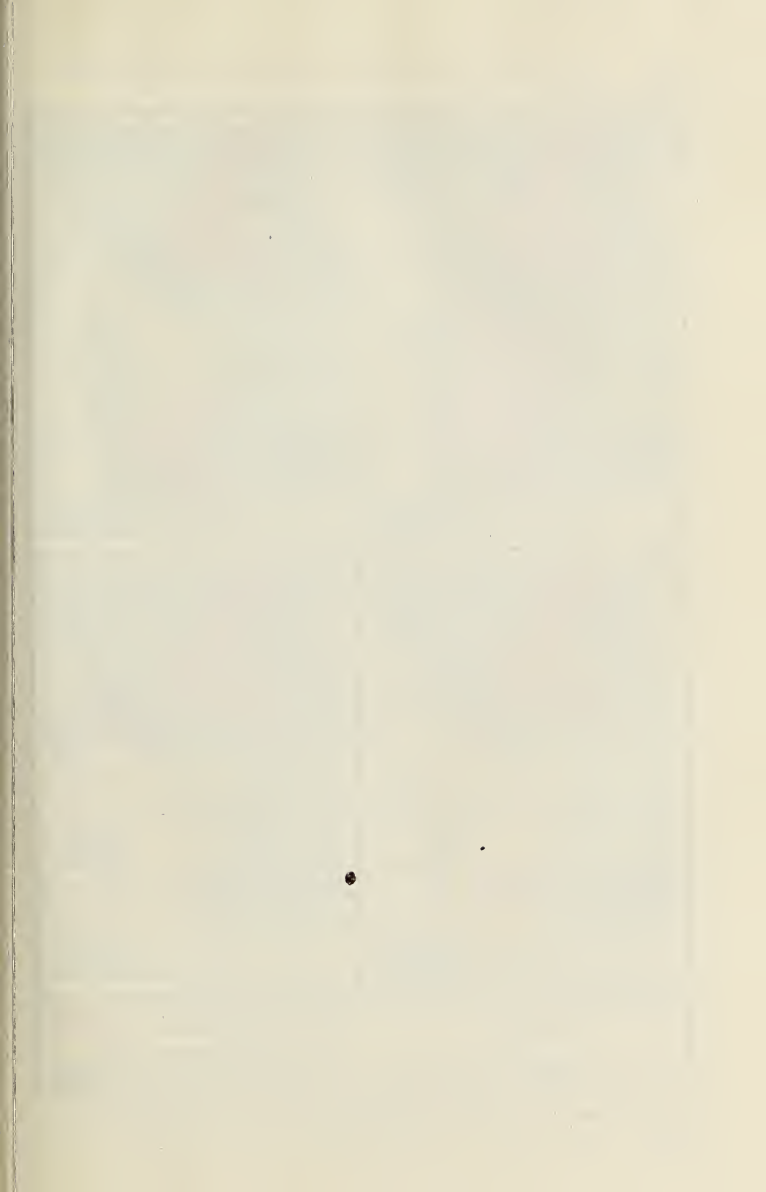
Is it a sign of weakness or strength in a king when he consults the representatives of his people about his policies? Do national rulers today act without advice? Is Louis IX commemorated in any way today in the United States?

153. The Hundred Years' War and Its Outcome. — England and France were rivals for several centuries. From the conquest of England by William of Normandy until into the nineteenth century England and France were on opposite sides of any war in which they both took part, and there were few wars on the continent which France kept out of. The particular part of this long rivalry which we call the Hundred Years' War extended, with intermissions, from 1337 to 1453.

It began in the reign of King Edward III of England. He claimed that he was by right the King of France. His claim was derived through his mother, in spite of the so-called Salic Law prevailing in France, which declared that no woman nor anyone whose claims depended solely upon a woman could succeed to the throne. Even if Edward's claims had been better, though, the French would have objected to an Englishman as king.

Other causes helped to bring on this conflict. England was now raising a great deal of wool, but not manufacturing it. She wanted to sell it in the district which we call Belgium but which for a long time was known as Flanders. The French interfered with this trade and also with the wine trade between England and southern France. Further, the French helped the Scots in their quarrels with England.

All the fighting of this long war was on French soil, and so France





ENGLAND AND FRANCE, 1154-1453.

SCALE OF MILES
0 50 100 200 300 400 500 600

Limit of the French Kingdom
Possessions of Plantagenet Kings
Lands of the French Kings
Independent Fiefs in France
Territory of Charles the Bold of Burgundy



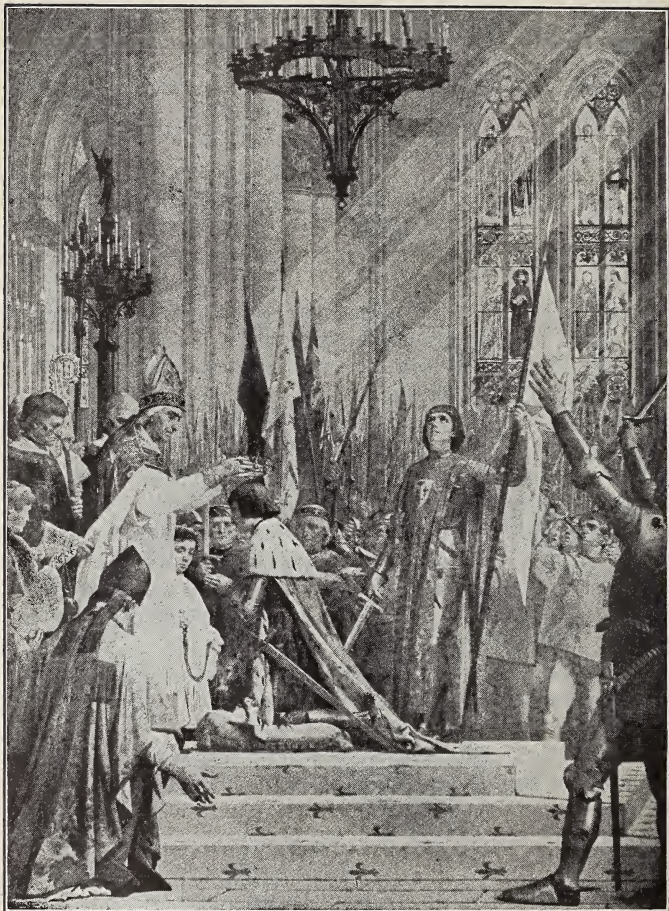
Christian principalities gain strength in Spain			Greek students come to Florence	
Black Death				
1309	"Babylonian Captivity" of the Popes			1377 Great Schism
Philip IV (1285) 1314		Gunpowder first used in battle		
Estates-General meet 1302		Hundred Years' War begins 1337	Cr�cy 1346	Poitiers 1356
Dante	Giotto	Petrarch Boccaccio		Wyclif Chaucer
1301 A.D.	14TH CENTURY A.D.			1400

suffered worse from the devastation of land and interference with trade. Strangely enough, the English won almost all the notable victories, but their victories did little good. In 1346 at Cr cy (cr  s ') and in 1356 at Poitiers (pw  ti  ') the English were marvelously successful over much larger French armies. These victories gave proof that the old feudal warfare was out of date. Light-armed soldiers, carrying long bows, could do much more damage than feudal knights with their awkward and heavy armor. During this Hundred Years' War gunpowder was used for the first time in a fight in Europe, but its main purpose was to scare the other side. Firing a heavy cannon was about as dangerous to the people behind it as to the people in front. A peace treaty was made in 1360.

Would two nations go to war today over such matters as the claim of a certain person to a throne? Would trade be more, or less, likely to cause war now than in the fourteenth century?

After a fifty years' recess, King Henry V of England revived the claim of the English kings to the throne of France, and invaded France with an army. He won a marvelous victory at Agincourt (  zh  coor') (1415), and in a few years succeeded in getting a treaty made by which he might marry the French king's daughter. Not long afterward, however, both Henry V and the French king died. The French were in no mood to have their crown handed over to Henry's infant son. Soon fighting was going on again, and the English seemed to be getting the better of it.

Then appeared one of the most extraordinary characters in all history — Joan of Arc. Though born in a little country village



JOAN OF ARC SEES THE DAUPHIN CROWNED

Ewing Galloway

The painter depicts the scene of triumph of the Maid of Orleans when in Rheims Cathedral, after her victory, Charles VII received the crown of France. The original painting by Lenepveu is in the Pantheon at Paris.

and living the life of a peasant girl until she was eighteen years old, she had dreams and heard voices which she believed called her to undertake to rescue France and see that the French Prince Charles should be formally crowned at Rheims, as French kings regularly were. Under her leadership the French rescued the city of Orleans (or lëän'), which the English were besieging, and crowned the Dauphin,¹ as the French prince was called, in Rheims (ränz, or reems) (1429) as King Charles VII.

Now comes the saddest part of the story. Charles showed little appreciation of Joan's services to him. Though she thought her work was done, the French insisted that she keep on fighting. At length she fell into the hands of the English, who had her burned at the stake as a witch (1431). Even English soldiers who saw this cruel act were horrified, and one of them exclaimed, "Our cause is lost; we have burned a saint." Whatever the reason was, the English had no success from that time on; and their enthusiasm for fighting soon faded out.

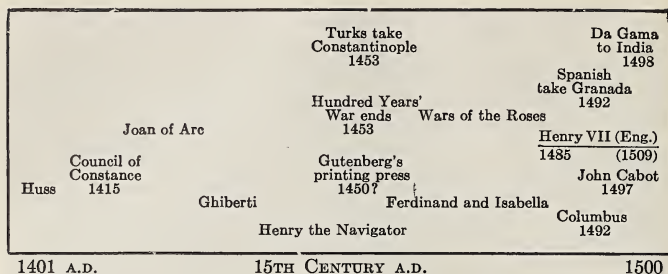
Both sides stopped fighting in 1453 and did not even bother to make a treaty about it. They had had enough. Perhaps no more useless war was ever fought. The English lost whatever territory their kings had claimed in France, except Calais, though until the very beginning of the nineteenth century the English monarch continued to refer to himself as "King of Great Britain, France, and Ireland." The war did help to give the French people a common interest and strengthen the power of the French king. Louis XI, who was King of France in the latter part of the fifteenth century, was a capable ruler and got together a strong army. Under him France seemed to be the strongest country in Europe.

For conditions at the end of the Hundred Years' War, see the last of the maps facing page 289.

Do you know any ways in which Joan of Arc is honored today? Shakespeare's play, *Henry V*, relates to that part of the Hundred Years' War in which that king was engaged. Find some striking passage in it.

154. England in the Later Fifteenth Century. — The thirty years from 1455 to 1485 were a period of almost constant civil war between the supporters of two branches of the royal family — the

¹ The word *Dauphin* meant to the French the same as the term "Prince of Wales" does in connection with the English royal family.



house of Lancaster and the house of York. This fighting is usually called the Wars of the Roses, because the house of Lancaster had a red rose as its badge, and the house of York a white rose. At the end of it, Henry Tudor, who belonged to the Lancaster branch of the family, came to the throne as Henry VII. He married Elizabeth, who belonged to the York branch, and thus helped to heal the wounds of the prolonged conflict. Its chief result was the wiping out of many noble families and the reduction of the power of these lords and barons so that a king could have his own way without much trouble.

Henry VII's reign (1485-1509) was a time of rebuilding for England. He kept order in the country and strengthened the royal power by special courts and economical management. In his reign John Cabot made his famous trip across the Atlantic — the first of modern Europeans to see the continent of North America. Henry's economy is seen in the entry in his diary when Cabot came back: "To hym that found the new isle, £ 10" — less than fifty dollars for discovering a continent — but of course Henry didn't know how important this discovery was going to be in the history of England.

Henry VII had little to worry about from Parliament, because the people, pleased with the improvement in the country, were inclined to let him do about as he pleased. Yet Parliament did meet once in a while and at least went through the motions of granting authority to the King. Though Henry and the monarchs of the Tudor family who followed him usually had their own way in matters of government, they made no foolish claims about the

source of their authority; and the idea that Parliament, representing the people, had to give its consent to anything of great importance was kept alive during all the time.

Would some pioneer achievement today like that of Cabot's get more than fifty dollars as compensation? Why do you suppose the English Parliament did not die during a period of strong monarchs, while the French Estates-General went to sleep for nearly two centuries?

155. Spain and Portugal Come to the Front. — While England and France were rising to leadership in western Europe, nation-building was also going on in the peninsula south of the Pyrenees. After the conquest of Spain by the Moors (711), events in Spain did not have much part in the political story of Europe. But not all of Spain was conquered by the Moors. Certain districts in the northern part remained Christian. Little by little, these Christian principalities extended their territory at the expense of the Moors; and by about 1400 there was nothing left under Moorish control except the district in the south, centering in the famed city of Granada.

Some of the Christian principalities united with others, until at length two kingdoms in particular became notable — Castile (*cas tēl'*) in the central part and Ar'agon in the northeast. In 1469 Ferdinand who became King of Aragon, married Isabella, heiress to the crown of Castile, and these two kingdoms became one. The kingdom of Spain now included almost all of the peninsula except Portugal, which had grown up separately.

The year 1492 was memorable in Spanish history. In that year Columbus went on his epoch-making voyage. In that year the long struggle with the Moors was ended. The city of Granada was captured and added to the dominions of Ferdinand and Isabella.

The rule of Ferdinand and Isabella brought a condition of peace and order to Spain which it had never known before. Robber barons and thugs who infested the highways were suppressed. Their religious zeal, however, led them into one great mistake; for thousands of Moors, "heretics," and Jews were driven from the country, and others were put to death. In this way Spain lost some of her most active and brightest citizens.

The end of the fifteenth century, then, found a third strong kingdom in western Europe — Spain — to take its place beside

France and England. Portugal for many years stood almost on a par with Spain. Both countries were in a position, as you will see by looking at the map, to take a leading part in exploration in both the Old World and the New. Portugal started on this work



COLUMBUS' RECEPTION AT THE SPANISH COURT

Gramstorff Bros.

With Indians whom he had brought back and other trophies Columbus was received from his first expedition with honor by Spain's rulers, Ferdinand and Isabella.

of exploration earlier than Spain, and both were for a considerable time the leading powers of Europe in discovery, trade, and conquest.

The Moors were industrious and intelligent people. Do you suppose Spain was stronger or weaker after conquering Granada? Why would a well-meaning king treat heretics as the Spanish kings did?

156. Influences That Helped to Strengthen Kings and Nations.

—Now was the development of strong governments in three nations at the same time a mere coincidence? Not likely. A national spirit had arisen such as had not been known for centuries. From 1500 onward we have to think of a great ruler and his country together. The Tudor monarchs represented not merely

a capable family, but England. Ferdinand and Isabella, and Charles V and Philip II in the sixteenth century, stood not only for themselves but for Spain. You could not separate the King of France from his nation. Loyalty to one's king could result not so much from devotion to the man as from patriotism for the nation whose head the king was. England, France, and Spain were *nations* now, not merely collections of dukedoms and counties.

As a part of the development of this national spirit came the growth of national languages. In England, an *English* language took the place of Saxon and Norman speech. Instead of dialects spoken in different parts of France, a *French* language took definite form. In one sense it was unfortunate that nations began to talk so differently from one another, for people may think everybody is queer whose speech they cannot comprehend. But, at the same time, a national language gives to a nation a bond of unity.

The disappearance of feudal lords, or the weakening of their power, also strengthened national loyalty. If a king gave a country peace and protection, well-disposed men and women would be grateful to him. In their eyes the king would grow steadily bigger, if he was the *one* source of authority to look up to.

One more influence helped to strengthen the power of kings. That was a period of weakness in the Christian Church. For nearly seventy years the Popes were controlled by the King of France. Then there was a period when two, and for a few years three, persons claimed to be Pope. At such times loyalty to the head of the Church might waver, and a wise king could more easily make himself the center of his people's interests.

What is your definition of *patriotism*? Do you feel patriotic toward the United States of America or toward the President? Is patriotism an emotion or the result of reason? Should we probably be more, or less, patriotic if all civilized people spoke the same language?

157. Disunited Germany. — While England, France, and Spain were becoming real national states with kings whose position or power really meant something, events took an entirely different course in central Europe. Germany was divided into several hundred states of all kinds and sizes. An occasional kingdom, numerous principalities, dukedoms, free cities, and other varieties of government could be found there. In fact "Germany" itself

was such an indefinite term that on a map of Europe for 1100 or 1300 one would not know where to draw boundaries for it. Just as was said of Italy then and later, so Germany was merely a "geographical expression."

The only personage who had any notion that he might make himself ruler of all Germany was the Holy Roman Emperor (§§ 108, 142). The right to choose the emperor came to be possessed by seven "electors," three of whom were churchmen and four rulers of some kind. Some capable men acquired the title, including Henry IV (§ 142) and Frederick Barbarossa (§ 136), who ruled from 1152 to 1190. (In studying this section make use of the time-graphs on pages 255, 258, and 259.)

If these emperors had been content with being emperors in Germany, they might have got somewhere. But some of the ablest of them were carried away with the notion that Italy was also a part of the Holy Roman Empire and that it was their business to bring as much of that peninsula as possible under their rule. This ambition was not gratified, and in attempting to put it over they lost some of their influence. An Emperor was seldom much more than a sort of chairman over German kings and princes.

In 1273 the electors chose as Holy Roman Emperor Count Rudolph, of Hapsburg, a little district in Switzerland. They probably elected him because they figured that he would not amount to much; and he accepted the office because it would enable him to add prestige to his family. Before long the Hapsburgs were the ruling family in Austria. Until the end of the World War a member of the Hapsburgs was on the throne in Austria — thus giving it one of the longest records, though by no means the happiest, of any family that ever occupied a throne. From the early part of the fifteenth century on, the Austrian ruler was regularly chosen to be Holy Roman Emperor. By marriages the Hapsburgs extended their family influence into Bohemia, Hungary, the Netherlands, and even Spain.

Though the interests of this family were to a very considerable extent outside of Germany, the Hapsburg princes liked to think that they could rule Germany too. Other German princes did not take kindly to the idea, and the resulting jealousy helped to keep Germany apart. When, far along in the nineteenth cen-







tury, a united Germany was finally formed, it was only after Austria had been driven out of German politics.

Another family, the Hohenzollerns (hō'entsölerns), had much to do with German affairs. In the early fifteenth century a member of that family came into power in the duchy of Bran'denburg. Brandenburg finally turned into what we know as Prussia; and Prussia became the backbone of the German Empire of later days. The Hohenzollern family held to the throne there all through that period.

Do you see anything in the newspapers these days about members of either of the two royal families mentioned above? Later on, the Frenchman Voltaire remarked that the Holy Roman Empire was neither holy, nor Roman, nor an empire. Can you give any facts to prove or disprove his statements?

158. Disunited Italy. — Italy also went through the whole medieval period and much of later times without any chance of coming together as a nation. Some of the same causes that kept Germany in confusion were at work in Italy. The effort of some emperors to keep Italy under their control was as disastrous in one place as in the other. They were opposed not only by the leading cities of northern Italy but by the Pope, who was determined that the Emperor should have no political control over Italy.

Another obstacle to the union of Italy was the territory of the Pope which stretched across the peninsula in the central part from northeast to southwest. He ruled over these "Papal States," or "States of the Church," just as any other king or prince would rule anywhere. Whether in the long run this fact was of value to the Pope is hard to prove; yet the popes insisted that they ought to have territory of their own so that they would not be subject to any king or emperor.

In northern Italy for a considerable time a number of important city-states ruled themselves and in some cases the surrounding country. In name, several of these were republics, though they were sometimes controlled by men who were much like the "tyrants" of ancient Greek cities.

Venice was one of the most prosperous cities in medieval Europe. It was governed as a republic controlled by its merchant class. Its chief official was a *doge* (dōj), with a council of ten to assist in the

government. The ships of Venice could be found on every sea touching Europe. It was one of the chief centers of trade between Europe and western Asia and between the Mediterranean coast and the countries along the Baltic and North Seas.



A SCENE IN MODERN VENICE

This picture shows the "piazza" on which the famous Cathedral of St. Mark fronts. The tall building is the Campanile (campanē'le).

Gen'oa was the chief commercial rival of Venice, though it never rose quite to the heights that Venice gained in commerce or politics. Columbus, the Cabots, and Vespucci are Italians you have already heard of who prove that if Italy itself founded no colonies, Italians at least helped other countries to discover and win distant lands. In Florence, the mass of the people had for a time more voice in the government than in some of the other cities. But even there a few wealthy families gained great influence. One of these, the

Medici (mēd'ichē), practically ruled the city for a long time. The Medicis were much interested in art and literature, and Florence became perhaps the most famous of all medieval cities in these fields. Milan and Pisa (pē'za) were other prominent and powerful cities.

Have you ever read the *Merchant of Venice*? If so, did it give you any impression of what life in that city was like in medieval times? Show how such diverse causes as ignorance, selfishness, commercial progress, and a spirit of independence all contributed toward the lack of unity in Italy. With what people of the ancient Orient might the Venetians be compared?

159. Countries We Hear Less About. — Since this is just a book, and not a library, you will understand why we cannot tell much about the history of the smaller countries of Europe. It would be unfair, however, to ignore them completely.

The little country of Switzerland has always appealed to lovers of freedom. Its mountains have helped to protect it, but its people

have been heroic, too. You ought to know some of the stories about William Tell and Arnold Winkelried (vink'el reet), some of which may be true. The Swiss *cantons*, as the divisions of the country are called, formed a confederation to resist the Hapsburgs. The Swiss defeated their enemies in the valley of Morgar'ten (1315), and at Sempach (sem'päck), in 1386, won freedom for Switzerland. No other republic in the world has such a long record of independence.

Do you think the geography of Switzerland has prevented other countries from trying to conquer it or caring whether they could do so or not? There is a saying "*Montani semper liberi*" — "Mountaineers are always freemen." Is that true?

The Dutch also deserve more credit for fighting the battles of freedom than people have sometimes given them. Their location made it hard for them to keep greedy neighbors out. The Low Countries, as they were often called, were not completely united themselves. They included not only what today is the kingdom of the Netherlands, but the region once called Flanders and now Belgium. This southern portion became French in a good many respects as time went on.

In the cities of Flanders more manufacturing was done in proportion to the population than anywhere else in medieval Europe. Ghent and Ypres were among the leaders in the making of cloth. Bruges, Antwerp, Rotterdam, and Amsterdam were famous centers of trade by land or sea. Their people were always industrious and on the whole prosperous when let alone. But at one time or another the French king, the Duke of Burgundy (in eastern France), and the rulers of Spain and Austria all claimed to rule over some or all of the region. Only the Dutch were able to keep their independence.

The people of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden were the original Northmen. They were much alike in many respects — hardy, hard-working, substantial, after they settled down. For a little time after 1397 they were united under one ruler. On the coins of Denmark today you may still see three crowns which commemorate the "triple crown" of this union. Sweden broke away after a time, but for many years Denmark and Norway were under one monarch.

Do you think these little countries made as real contributions to world progress as some of the bigger countries? Do the Dutch and Flemish cities mentioned in this section today retain places of prominence in business and trade?

160. Russia and the Mongols. — The vast area which we call Russia has figured very little in our story up to this point. Some



GENGHIS KHAN

The artist's drawing of this remarkable character suggests the Mongolian in his features, and, if you are imaginative, the ruthlessness with which his followers overran everything in their way.

We have already learned of the terrible Huns who invaded Europe under Attila (§ 101). Bulgars and Magyars (maď'yars) also came from the East into Europe; but they settled down in Bulgaria and Hungary and became to a considerable extent Europeanized. (Refer to time-graphs, pages 207, 209, and 259.)

The last of these invaders of eastern Europe were the Mon'gols, or Tartars (also spelled Tatars). Soon after the year 1200, under an extraordinary chieftain called Genghis (jen'gis) Khan, they spread their ruler's authority far to the east and southeast into Asia and west into Europe as well. China, India, and Russia all

Northmen, called Rus, settled there in the ninth century under the leadership of Ru'rik. Missionaries from Constantinople gained converts for Christianity and tied up Russia with the Eastern, or Greek, Church.

One big reason for Russia's separation from western Europe was that Russia was overrun by invaders from the East. Between China and western Asia there have lived through the centuries many nomadic tribes. No matter how many of them poured out of this region to the East or West, there always seemed to be more. These nomads never developed any literature, religion, or other form of culture of any value. When some of these wild tribes spread eastward, the Chinese built their Great Wall to keep them out — 1500 miles long and wide enough on top for wagons to be drawn along it.

felt the power of this mighty conqueror, who held as subjects millions of Christians, Mohammedans, Buddhists, and heathen. The western part of his empire was known as the "Golden Horde." Though this Mongol empire went to pieces after about 200 years, Russia itself remained more Asiatic than European in thought, life, and customs. Even in the nineteenth century, Europeans had a saying, "Scratch a Russian and you will find a Tartar."

Do you suppose it was lucky for western Europe that Genghis Khan didn't live longer? Have you read any stories or seen any movies that suggest conquerors like these Mongol chieftains?

161. The Ottoman Turks. — When the Mongols were on the move, some other peoples tried to get out of their way by going to the West. One band was called, from the name of their leader, Othman, Ot'toman Turks, or Ottomans. Without very much trouble these Turks conquered nearly all of Asia Minor. Constantinople held out against them for a considerable time. Without waiting for its capture the Turks pressed on into Europe. By the year 1400 they were on the banks of the Danube and still going. The Christian rulers of western Europe either could not or would not send help to the Eastern Emperor, and after a brave struggle the famous city on the Bosphorus had to surrender to the Turks. Some consider the year 1453, in which this happened, the dividing line between medieval and modern history.

These Turks overran Egypt, Syria, Mesopotamia, the Balkan peninsula, the shores of the Black Sea, and the great part of Hungary. They suffered one serious setback in 1571 when a Christian navy, brought together under the urging of the Pope and largely supplied by Spain and Venice, defeated the Turkish navy in the battle of Lepan'to, off the coast of Greece. After that the Turks did not menace Christian Europe by sea; but as late as 1683 they were at the walls of Vienna threatening to capture the city. They were beaten off with the help of an army under John Sobieski (sō bī ěs'kī), King of Poland. That was their high-water mark in eastern and central Europe. Little by little they were pushed back, but for many a long year they tyrannized over the numerous races and creeds in southeastern Europe. (Time-graphs on pages 292, 341, and 372.)

Why do you suppose a people who were evidently good fighters were so backward as rulers and administrators? Had western Europe had all it wanted of such movements as the Crusades, or were there other reasons why Constantinople was left to its fate?

The map on page 345 shows Turkish conquests at about their greatest extent.

IDEAS TO STAY WITH US

The geography of Europe had considerable to do with the growth of distinct and separate nations, especially England, France, and Spain.

These nations which grew up on the Atlantic side of Europe are of special interest and importance to the United States. England in particular is the source of many American customs and institutions.

The people of England today are descended from different racial origins — Angles and Saxons, Danes and Normans. The conquest of England by William of Normandy brought to England a very important new element in people, language, and government.

England's good kings helped to keep peace and to found lasting principles of law and government. Under some of the bad kings, tyranny inspired people to struggle for liberty. Magna Charta is one of the most famous "liberty documents" in all history.

England developed representative government and established a Parliament which when it asserted itself could make kings do its will.

France was built up little by little through additions to the territory of Capetian kings. Her ablest rulers were victorious over English monarchs and the Pope.

Many influences were at work to develop a new national patriotism, especially in those countries which had strong kings. By the end of the fifteenth century England, France, and Spain were the strongest nations in Europe.

Germany and Italy remained disunited. Along with other causes, the ambitions of the "Holy Roman Emperors" worked against the union of both these countries.

By the end of the fifteenth century some smaller countries, such as Switzerland, Holland, Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, had made considerable progress. The Swiss defended themselves against the Hapsburg rulers of Austria. The "Low Countries" became famous for manufacturing and commerce.

The East and Southeast of Europe were less successful in defending themselves against invaders. Russia was overrun by Mongol conquerors, and for centuries kept out of the range of general European progress. The Ottoman Turks overran the Balkan peninsula and even districts farther north. The capture of Constantinople in 1453 marked the final downfall of political power that could be traced back to the old Roman Empire.

NAMES AND TERMS WE SHOULD UNDERSTAND

- | | | |
|--------------------------|------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. Angles | 17. Prince of Wales | 33. Ferdinand and Isabella |
| 2. Saxons | 18. Model Parliament | |
| 3. Jutes | 19. House of Lords | 34. Wars of the Roses |
| 4. Egbert | 20. House of Commons | 35. Henry Tudor |
| 5. Alfred | 21. William Wallace | 36. Rudolph of Hapsburg |
| 6. Canute | 22. Robert Bruce | 37. States of the Church |
| 7. Harold | 23. Bannockburn | |
| 8. William the Conqueror | 24. Hugh Capet | 38. Doges |
| 9. Salisbury Oath | 25. Philip Augustus | 39. Medici family |
| 10. Domesday Book | 26. (St.) Louis IX | 40. William Tell |
| 11. Henry II | 27. Philip the Fair | 41. Cantons |
| 12. Jury system | 28. Estates-General | 42. Rurik, or Rus |
| 13. John | 29. Hundred Years' War | 43. Mongols; Tartars |
| 14. Magna Charta | 30. Dauphin | 44. Genghis Khan |
| 15. Simon de Montfort | 31. Joan of Arc | |
| 16. Edward I | 32. Moors | |

DATES WORTH REMEMBERING

- 449 The beginning of Anglo-Saxon conquest of England
- 987 Hugh Capet, King of France
- 1066 Norman Conquest of England
- 1215 Magna Charta
- 1273 Rudolph of Hapsburg becomes Holy Roman Emperor
- 1295 The Model Parliament in England
- 1337-1453 The Hundred Years' War
- 1453 The fall of Constantinople
- 1492 The conquest of Granada

INTERESTING SUBJECTS YOU MAY LIKE TO KNOW ABOUT

- | | |
|---|-----------------------------------|
| Stories about King Alfred | The Beginnings of the Jury System |
| William the Conqueror and His Rule in England | Robert Bruce |
| | Simon de Montfort |
| The Gaining of Magna Charta | Joan of Arc |

Life in a Spanish Court
 Frederick Barbarossa
 Venice in Its Glory
 Early Heroes of Switzerland

Genghis Khan and Tamerlane
 How the Eastern Empire Came to an
 End
 How Henry VII Governed England

INTERESTING PROJECTS YOU MAY LIKE TO UNDERTAKE

1. Sketch a map of Europe, showing in general the national boundaries about 1500. On it also locate the following: Normandy, Hastings, Salisbury, Crecy, Rheims, Calais, Orleans, Lepanto, Vienna, Granada, Avignon, chief members of the Hanseatic League, chief Italian cities, Rotterdam, Utrecht, Copenhagen, Moscow, Constantinople.

2. Sketch a map of the British Isles, showing surrounding waters, chief rivers, highland districts, main divisions, London, York, Canterbury, Hastings, Salisbury, Runnymede, Dublin, Edinburgh, Bannockburn.

3. Make posters or cartoons to illustrate some phase of the career of William the Conqueror, King John, Ferdinand and Isabella, Frederick Barbarossa, or any other characters that may have appealed to you.

4. Arrange a dramatization of one or more of the following: a day with King Alfred; a day with Henry II; the signing of Magna Charta; the crowning of Charles VII.

5. Make models or sketches to show the kinds of weapons of warfare used in the later Middle Ages, the early uses of gunpowder, and the like.

6. Have a "Who Am I?" exercise on the important characters mentioned in this unit.

7. (For all) Begin a time-chart for Europe covering the period from 800 to 1600 or a little after.

8. Sketch a map of the Spanish peninsula showing the gradual unification of the country under Christian rule.

9. Present a typical scene from the *Merchant of Venice*.

10. Continue your Chart of Trends in World Progress.

PLACES FOR FURTHER READING

Adams, *Civilization during the Middle Ages*, XIII, XIV, XVI

Adams, *Growth of the French Nation*, VIII, IX

Andrews, *Short History of England*, I-XV

Haaren and Poland, *Famous Men of the Middle Ages*, XXVI, XXIX

Munro, *History of the Middle Ages*, XVI, XXIII

Ogg, *Source Book of Medieval History*, X, XI, XIV, XVIII, XXV

Robinson, *Readings in European History*

Tappan, *Heroes of the Middle Ages*, XL

Bryce, *The Holy Roman Empire*
 Johnson, *The Normans in Europe*
 Lowell, *Joan of Arc*

Oman, *The Byzantine Empire*
 Tappan, *When Knights Were Bold*

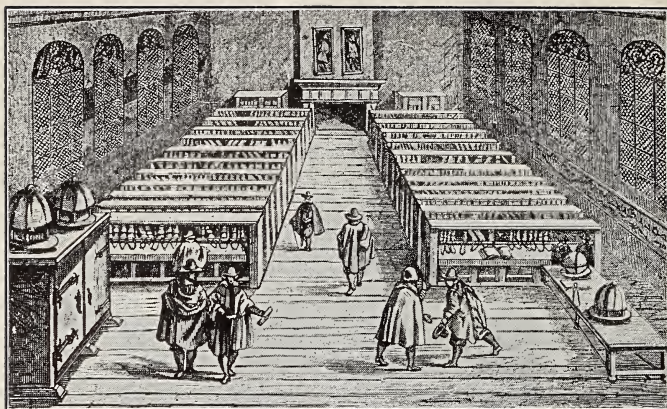
Cather, *The Castle of the Hawk*
 Clemens, *Joan of Arc*
 Converse, *Long Will*
 Davis, *The White Queen*
 Doyle, *The White Company*
 Henty, *In Freedom's Cause*
 Hugo, *Notre Dame de Paris*
 Irving, *Tales of the Alhambra*
 Kingsley, *Hereward, the Wake*
 Laughlin, *The Heart of Her Highness*

Marshall, *Cedric, the Forester*
 Porter, *Scottish Chiefs*
 Pyle, *Men of Iron*
 Stein, *Our Little Norman Cousin*
 Stevenson, *The Black Arrow*
 Tappan, *In the Days of Alfred the Great*
 Tappan, *In the Days of William the Conqueror*
 Wells, *St. Joan*



OLD WALLS OF CONSTANTINOPLE

This fine marble relic of the city's early days stands near the junction of the walls along the Marmara with the landward walls.



A UNIVERSITY LIBRARY OF EARLIER DAYS

Cuiver

Here in the library of the University of Leyden, the books were chained to the stacks so that they could not be removed. This is a scene from a later century than is dealt with in this unit.

VIII. THE AWAKENING OF WESTERN EUROPE

The Renaissance was the resurrection of the mind of man from an intellectual tomb.

The keynote of the Middle Ages had been submission to authority . . . the prime characteristic of the Renaissance was revolt against authority.

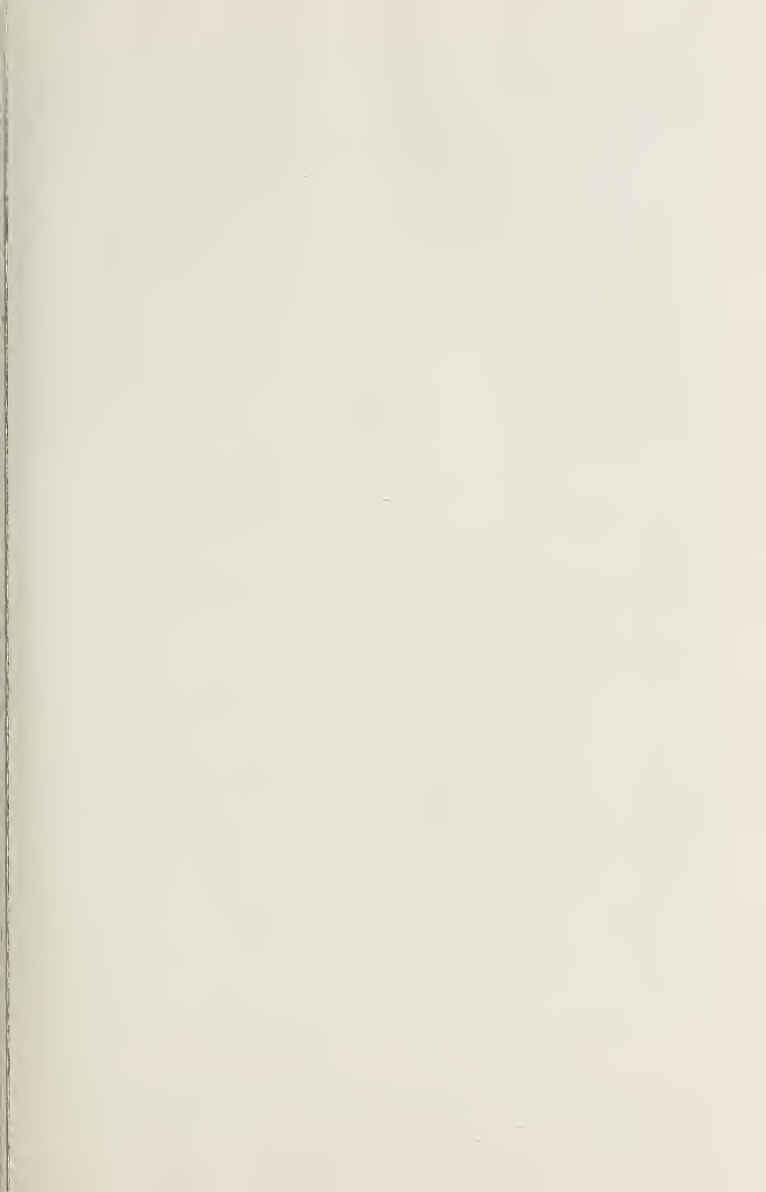
— HEARNshaw

Governments, if they are strong, can keep order; true religion will uplift and ennoble people's lives. But who can express human hopes and feelings by word, in stone, and on canvas? Who can discover the truth about the world in which we live? Unless there had come men who could do this, our modern world, with all its many and varied interests, could never have existed. After centuries of backwardness and depression, human genius and ambition took on new life. Those who led in this awakening are even today known and honored far beyond most of the princes and warriors of the Middle Ages.

Pointers for Our Study:

How did language and learning find new ways of helping people to think and act?

What was the meaning of the Renaissance, which seems to us the beginning of modern culture?





A PAGE FROM AN OLD MANUSCRIPT

This brilliant work, made for the first Duke of Buckingham, is a fine illustration of the elaborate way the medieval monks illuminated their manuscripts.

Who were the great artists who led men into an appreciation of beauty?

How did men gain for themselves a truer and wider knowledge of the forces of Nature and of the world?

162. Learning in Medieval Days. — The lamp of culture burned low during most of the Middle Ages. Few people had time to give attention to study, and most cared little or nothing about it. Newspapers and magazines were unknown to William the Conqueror and Philip Augustus. Books had to be made laboriously by hand, though the work was often beautifully done.

For some time the monasteries were responsible for about all the education carried on. Later, schools were established in connection with cathedrals. Public schools as we know them did not exist. Even a priest's education consisted largely of studying enough Latin and gaining enough acquaintance with music so that he could conduct the church services intelligently.

In a well-to-do family educated men might be hired as tutors for the children. Sometimes a rich man would give money to found a school where reading, writing, and perhaps music could be furnished. Then "grammar schools" were established here and there for the study of Latin. Girls received almost none of this instruction. Not until about 1100 did schools anywhere give instruction to any extent in the language of the people.

Do you suppose the lack of education in medieval times was one thing that kept people back, or would education in our modern sense have been wasted on the people of those days?

163. The Rise of the Universities. — With all this general lack of education the number of universities in the later Middle Ages and the attendance at them are surprising. Some of the greatest European universities of today began in the later medieval period. One of the most famous of these was at Paris. Others were at Oxford and Cāmbridge, in England; Prague (präg), in Bohemia; Bologna (bolōn'ya) and Saler'no, in Italy; and Cordova and Salaman'ca, in Spain. Sometimes a cathedral school developed into a university, and sometimes a famous teacher attracted students from all over western Europe.

A medieval university was not much like our famous institutions with their expensive buildings and equipment. Perhaps the

instructor was the only one in a class who owned a book. He sat on an elevated place in the front of the room and lectured to the pupils who sat on the straw-covered floor in front of him. Perhaps the students took notes on what he said, but often they depended on their memories. There was no elaborate system of credits such as most universities employ today. A pupil might transfer from one place to another without any formality. Since all the lecturing was in Latin, he could get along anywhere if he knew that language.

The curriculum of a medieval university included two parts — the trivium and the quadrivium. The *trivium* included logic, grammar, and rhetoric (or oratory). The *quadrivium* included arithmetic, geometry, music, and astronomy. The subjects in the quadrivium, you notice, all had to do with numbers or counting in some way; while the trivium dealt with language and expression. Astronomy was not scientific but rather like astrology. Music might mean only the teaching of church songs. Higher than these two groups of subjects were special studies like theology, law, and medicine. Sometimes a university became famous for a particular subject, as Paris for theology, Salerno for medicine, and Bologna for law.

Students at universities were often organized in groups called "nations," which included people from particular countries. Sometimes a town liked to have a university because it brought trade to the place. On the other hand, students were often disorderly and destroyed property or otherwise made trouble for the citizens. Fights between "town" and "gown" were altogether too frequent. "Town" meant the residents of the place; "gown" referred to the students because of the robes they wore.

Do you suppose the student at a medieval university was more, or less, in earnest than the average college student today? What are some common courses in present-day universities which one could not have taken in a medieval university? Are gowns worn today at universities?

164. The Schoolmen and the New Learning. — The learning imparted in most of the medieval universities was often called *scholasticism*, and the teachers of it *schoolmen*. They tried to prove everything by logic. They started with a "major premise" — something which they thought to be a fundamental fact, though

sometimes we would call it neither fundamental nor a fact — and with this as a basis for reasoning they argued out conclusions.

Here is a common example of their system of logic :

(Major Premise) All men are mortal.

(Minor Premise) John is a man.

(Conclusion) John is mortal.

One could hardly avoid accepting this particular conclusion ; but not all the major premises with which they started out were equally sound. Work out some other “ syllogisms.”

The thinking of the schoolmen was a sort of mixture of theology and philosophy. To them the early Christian writers and Aristotle were the last word in thinking. Whatever they had said or thought must be so. There was no experimenting, no work in laboratories, no study to find new facts. Too much of the time their arguments were mere quibbles over the meaning of words, and answers to such foolish questions as “How many angels can dance on the point of a needle?”

Some teachers, however, broke away from Aristotle and the Church fathers. One of the first to become famous by teaching people to really think was Peter Ab'elard, of Paris, who had the reputation of being the “greatest teacher since Aristotle's day.” He thought that the way to truth might start with raising a question. He became famous for the method of instruction represented in his “Sic et Non” — “So and not so” or “Yes and No.” He would list under “Sic” the points in favor of some debated question and under “Non” those against it, and let his students draw their own conclusions.

Several schoolmen were really able — Thomas Aquinas (à qui' nas), for example, a Dominican friar, who after his death was canonized as a saint. Another was Duns Scotus, or “the Scot.” Once it was a great compliment to be called a “Duns” — but now what if someone says you are a “dunce” !

Why would anyone think Abelard's method of teaching dangerous? Do we use Abelard's methods in any school subject today?

165. How Modern Languages Took Form. — Most languages spoken in southern and western Europe today belong in one of the two groups — the Romance and the Teutonic. The *Romance*

languages of southern Europe — French, Spanish, Portuguese, Italian, and Rumanian — are a result of the mixture of German words brought in by the invaders from the north with the Latin spoken by those among whom they settled. Sometimes even in parts of the same country different dialects were spoken. If there had been printing, good roads, or railroads in medieval times, we might not have had so many different languages today.

The *Teutonic* languages were German in the first place and stayed that way. Even in Germany there were “high German” and “low German.” The languages of Danes, Swedes, and Norwegians are also Teutonic.

English has a twofold ancestry. When the Angles and Saxons moved over into England, their speech became that of the country, and only a comparatively few words survived from the early Britons or the Romans. The majority of the words which we use in our everyday speech are Anglo-Saxon. The Norman conquest brought into England most of the Latin part in our mother tongue, which may include even more words than the Saxon, for the speech of the conquerors became the language of the courts and the monarchs. They spoke Norman-French, which developed mainly from Latin.

Pick out from this paragraph the words of Saxon origin and those of Latin, and see how these compare in numbers. Take a few sentences at random from a speech or essay of your own and make a similar comparison.

Observe in “The Lord’s Prayer in Seven Languages,” on the opposite page, likenesses and differences in the form of words resulting from their separate development.

Legends or stories constituted much of medieval literature when it was reduced to writing, and some of the first compositions in other tongues than Latin were the songs of wandering minstrels. Popular among the French was the song of Rō’land, the warrior who is said to have fought with Charlemagne against the Moors and who would make a fine hero for a modern movie. There were the love songs of the troubadours in France and the minnesingers in Germany, and the Song of the Cid (sīd) in Spain. England had the marvelous legends of King Arthur and his knights of the Round Table. Germany had its *Nibelungenlied* (nē’ bě löŋ en lēt), which

THE LORD'S PRAYER IN SEVEN LANGUAGES

GREEK

Πάτερ ἡμῶν ὁ ἐν τοῖς οὐρανοῖς· Ἀγιασθήτω τὸ ὄνομα σου, ἐλθάτω ἡ βασιλεία σου, γεννηθήτω τὸ θέλημά σου, ὡς ἐν οὐρανῷ καὶ ἐπὶ γῆς. Τὸν ἄρτον ἡμῶν τὸν ἐπιούσιον δὸς ἡμῖν σήμερον· καὶ ἄφεσις ἡμῖν τὰ ὀφειλήματα ἡμῶν, ὡς καὶ ἡμεῖς ἀφήκαμεν τοῖς ὀφειλέταις ἡμῶν· καὶ μὴ εἰσενέγκῃς ἡμᾶς εἰς πειρασμόν, ἀλλὰ ῥῦσαι ἡμᾶς ἀπὸ τοῦ πονηροῦ, [ὅτι σοὺ ἐστὶν ἡ βασιλεία καὶ ἡ δύναμις καὶ ἡ δόξα εἰς τοὺς αἰῶνας. Ἀμήν.]

LATIN

Pater noster qui es in caelis, sanctificetur nomen tuum. Adveniat regnum tuum, fiat voluntas tua sicut in caelo et in terra. Panem nostrum supersubstantialem da nobis hodie. Et dimitte nobis debita nostra sicut et nos dimittimus debitoribus nostris, et ne inducas nos in tentationem, sed libera nos a malo. [Quia tuum est regnum et potentia et gloria in saeculum saeculorum. Amen.]

ITALIAN

Padre nostro che sei ne' cieli, sia santificato il tuo nome. Il tuo regno venga. La tua volontà sia fatta in terra come in cielo. Dacci oggi il nostro pane quotidiano. E rimettici i nostri debiti, come noi ancora li rimettiamo ai nostri debitori. E non induci in tentazione, ma liberaci dal male; [perciocchè tuo è il regno, e la potenza, e la gloria, in sempiterno. Amen.]

SPANISH

Padre nuestro, que estás en los cielos, Santificado sea tu nombre. Venga tu reino. Sea hecha tu voluntad, como en el cielo, así también en la tierra. Dáanos hoy nuestro pan de cada día. Y perdónanos nuestras deudas, como también nosotros perdonamos á nuestros deudores. Y no nos pongas en tentación, sino libranos del mal. [Porque tuyo es el reino, y el poder, y la gloria, para siempre. Amén.]

FRENCH

Notre Père, qui es aux cieux, que ton nom soit sanctifié. Que ton règne vienne. Que ta volonté soit faite sur la terre comme au ciel. Donne-nous aujourd'hui notre pain quotidien. Et pardonne-nous nos dettes, comme nous pardonnons à nos débiteurs. Et ne nous induis point en tentation, mais délivre-nous du mal. [Car c'est à toi qu'appartiennent le règne et la puissance et la gloire, aux siècles des siècles. Amen.]

ENGLISH

Our Father which art in heaven, Hallowed be thy name. Thy kingdom come. Thy will be done in earth, as it is in heaven. Give us this day our daily bread. And forgive us our debts, as we forgive our debtors. And lead us not into temptation, but deliver us from evil. [For thine is the kingdom, and the power, and the glory, for ever. Amen.]

GERMAN

Vater unser, der du bist in dem Himmel! Geheiligt werde dein Name; dein Reich komme; dein Wille geschehe, wie im Himmel, also auch auf Erden; unser täglich Brot gib uns heute und vergib uns unsere Schulden, wie wir vergeben unsern Schuldigern; und führe uns nicht in Versuchung; sondern erlöse uns von dem Übel; [denn dein ist das Reich und die Kraft und die Herrlichkeit in Ewigkeit. Amen.]

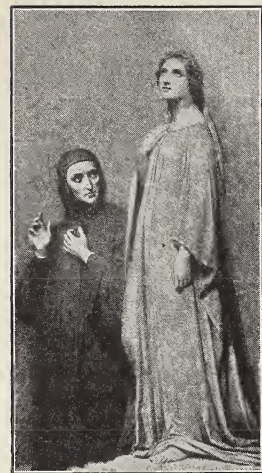
The English form is taken from the King James Version. The words in brackets in the Greek are not found in some of the earliest manuscripts. In versions in other languages sometimes the corresponding passage appears and sometimes it is not used.

tells how the hero Siegfried killed the kings of the Nibelungs and gained the Nibelung treasure. Besides, there were vividly im-

agined tales about Reynard the Fox and other Mother Goose characters.

One cause of the development of so many different languages was the difficulty of putting anything down in permanent form. Most books were made by hand by the monks, most often in the evening after a monk's outdoor work for the day was finished. It was slow business, especially since the writing was usually done very carefully and neatly.

Some of the great medieval writers helped to give a permanent character to the language in which they wrote. The Italian Dan'te (1265-1321) wrote in Italian rather than in Latin, and for the first time put the Italian language in writing in the words of a master. His great work was the *Divina Commedia*, in which he describes a visit to "Inferno," "Purgatorio," and "Paradiso." Many things in it show



Culver Service

DANTE AND BEATRICE

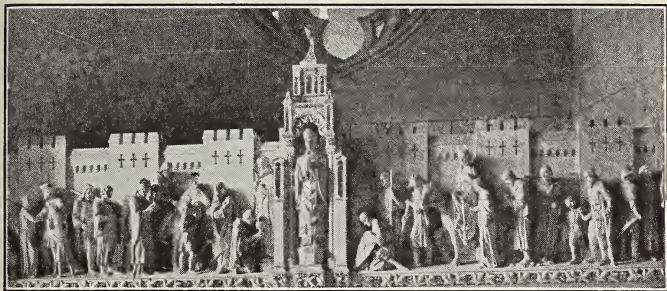
Though the young lady figures so prominently in much that Dante wrote, she married someone else.

that Dante was acquainted with Virgil and Homer, but it has its own great thoughts which it owes to no one but Dante.

In England a similar service was rendered by Geoffrey (jef'frey) Chaucer (1340-1400). His great contribution was the *Canterbury Tales* (§ 142), supposed to be told by pilgrims to that city. Perhaps when you first read Chaucer, you will wonder why we call it English; but it was, nevertheless. At about the same time John Wyc'lif (§ 178) translated the Bible into English and thus helped to give the language a definite written form. (Time-graph, page 289.)

Why do you suppose so many famous authors have written about visits to the lower world? Why have so many of these early writers used themes that were to a considerable extent religious?

166. The Dawn of the Renaissance. — *Renaissance* (rě ně sance') is a French word which means "rebirth" or a "new birth." It relates to the period between the early Middle Ages and the beginning of modern times. Why, then, should it be a "rebirth"?



CANTERBURY PILGRIMS

Publishers' Photo

This sculpturing in the Cathedral of St. John the Divine in New York represents the Pilgrims on their way to the tomb of Thomas à Becket. About these Pilgrims Chaucer wrote his lively *Canterbury Tales*.

It started as a "rebirth" of interest in the old Greek and Latin writers and broadened out into marvelous new activity in sculpture, painting, and literature. Church leaders had often frowned upon the study of Greek and Latin writers because they were "heathen." But when men discovered that the writings of Greeks and Romans pictured the acts and feelings of everyday men and women, they could not help being interested in them. As time went on, men thought and wrote about their own times and their own emotions and gave expression to their religious

A knight ther was, and that a worthy man,
 That from the tyme that he first bigan
 To ryden out, he lovede chyvalrye,
 Trouthe and honour, fredom and curteisie.

CHAUCER'S ENGLISH

These four lines from *The Canterbury Tales* show the difference and the similarity between Chaucer's English and our own.

devotion and appreciation of beauty through the works of great architects and artists.

The Renaissance started in Italy — and there was good reason for its doing so. Italy was the scene of the glories of ancient Rome. The Italian language was built on the Latin. There was always a chance of finding a manuscript of Horace or Cicero or some other Latin author. Besides, scholars of Constantinople took refuge there when the menace of the Turks became serious, carrying with them priceless manuscripts.

Moreover, the rulers of some of the Italian cities became much interested in this “New Learning,” which was after all only the old learning brought back again. Some of them, as in Florence, spent much money encouraging students, painters, and sculptors. For a considerable time, too, more wealth and leisure existed among the intelligent people in the cities of Italy than elsewhere; and such people took the greatest interest in learning and art.

Two Italians of the fourteenth century stand out particularly in developing the new-found interest in ancient literature. Pē'trarch (1304–1374) studied ancient classics, especially those in Latin, and translated many of them into Italian. He wrote considerable poetry, much of it in a new and original form of verse. Boccaccio (boc cä'cho) (1313–1375) collected all the Greek and Latin manuscripts he could find and had them translated into Italian. He also composed the *Decam'eron*, a collection of one hundred stories supposed to be told by men and women who had taken refuge at a country villa during a plague at Florence.

The Renaissance had passed its peak in Italy by the middle of the sixteenth century, but by that time it had made its way into northern Europe. There the Renaissance was more marked in the field of literature than in art. Germany, Holland, and England, especially in the sixteenth century, produced men who had new things to say and new ways of saying them.

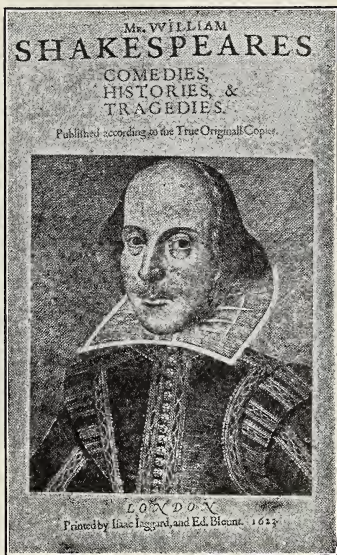
Work out a good brief definition of “the Renaissance.” What conditions favorable to the Renaissance existed in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries which had not prevailed before? Do governments today help support writers and artists?

167. Humanism and a New Literature. — Through art people express ideas and emotions, but religion and literature may arouse

and change them. As far as the Renaissance changed people's attitudes, its work was done chiefly through the new interest in literature and learning which was called *humanism*. Humanists were, to start with, students of the "humanities" — Latin and Greek — but fifteenth and sixteenth century humanists also thought and wrote on subjects important in their own time.

The greatest of the humanists was Eras'mus (1466–1536). He was a Dutchman, whose family name was Gerhard, but, like many other prominent men of those times, he adopted a name with a classical form. One of his most famous works he called *The Praise of Folly*. It was a sort of ironical discussion of the evils of his time. He was disgusted with some practices of churchmen, though he was by no means an opponent of religion. He published a translation of the New Testament with the Greek and Latin versions side by side, in the hope that it might be more readily understood by people in general. (Picture on page 351.)

Erasmus and two friends of his are often called the "Oxford Reformers," because they were connected with the University of Oxford in England. One of them was John Col'et (1466–1519), who founded the famous St. Paul's School in London. Still more prominent was Thomas More (1478–1535), canonized as a saint just four hundred years later. He is best known for the writing of *Uto'pia*. This is an imaginary Greek word which might be translated "nowhere." In this work he described what seemed to him



A SHAKESPEARE TITLE PAGE

This page appeared in the first collected edition of Shakespeare's plays printed at London in 1623. It is now in the British Museum.

an ideal community. So today we speak of a Utopia as something too good to be true, or an impossible ideal.

The finest flowering of English literature came in the later sixteenth century. Then lived Edmund Spenser, whose *Faerie Queene* was the greatest poem yet written in English. Then also



CERVANTES

appeared William Shakespeare (1564–1616), greatest of all dramatists in the English language, and some would say in any tongue. Francis Bacon, who lived about the same time, was well known as a judge and an author.

At about the same time with these men appeared the Frenchman Montaigne (mōn-tān'), in whose *Essays* were described the men whom he saw in society. Then also came the most famous of all Spanish writers — Cervantes (ser van'tēs). Though he wrote numerous plays and stories, he is best remembered

for *Don Quixote* (ke hō'tě), a tale of a Spanish country gentleman who became so enthusiastic over the stories of chivalry that he set out on a tour of adventure with his squire, Sancho Panza, and got into all sorts of ridiculous situations. It was really a satire on what was left of feudalism.

Not many people today read More's *Utopia* or Cervantes' *Don Quixote*. By what right, then, do we speak of these as important in the world of literature? If there had been no Renaissance, would there have been any Shakespeare?

168. Music in the New Day. — Music, as we know it, contributed little to the life of the people during the Middle Ages. That is not saying that they did not like music, but simply that musicians had not made progress enough in expressing ideas musically to produce high-class compositions. Religious music had some place

among the Jewish people and still more among the early Christians, but their singing was mostly in the form of very simple chants.

Because the Romans had used instruments in worship, the early Christians thought they ought not to do so. After a time, however, the organ found a place in the church. A rather crude instrument it would seem to us, but it added volume and strength



THE CONTEST OF THE SINGERS AT THE WARTBURG

In this picture you see both the minstrels and the instruments which they used. The songs they sang included tunes brought back by Crusaders from the East as well as those which were native to western Europe. This represents medieval music in its most interesting stage.

to the music of the church services. Christmas carols became popular, and bells could be used not only to call people to church, but to send out upon the air the tunes that people loved.

Recall some of the carols you have heard at Christmas time, and if the members of the class are musically inclined, try singing a few of them.

When feudal days came along, a different type of music took people's fancy. The knights and ladies in the castles, if they could not make music themselves, enjoyed listening to traveling minstrels who sang or told stories or performed tricks. The harp or the lute was the chief instrument employed for some time, but Crusaders who lived to come back had become acquainted with instruments used in the East which used a bow drawn across strings. Soon

the viola found a place in the list of instruments. Similarly among other people the bagpipe and an instrument somewhat like the guitar began to be used.

In some of the German towns members of guilds who were musically inclined formed societies to enjoy music through both composing it and singing or playing it. They called themselves *meistersingers*. But too often they tried to follow fixed rules in composing their music, just as they did in making their goods as members of their guild.

Among many people little songs come into being that express somehow the sorrow or joy of men and women, boys or girls. Sometimes such a tune speaks of the work they are doing and the things they enjoy, or it may be just a dance tune. Music of this kind we call *folk* music. Characteristic qualities mark the music of different countries, seeming to express the spirit of the people themselves. It is not difficult, for one with a musical sense, to pick out readily a tune that came first from Spain, or Holland, or France, or Germany, or any of several other countries.

The leaders of the medieval Church found in music a means of adding both to the beauty of the services and the appeal of those services to the hearts and minds of the people. In some of the great cathedrals organs of considerable size were built, though they did not add greatly to the beauty of the music. Cathedrals had their choirs who learned to sing tunes together. Monks in some of the monasteries succeeded in working out a way to put music on paper. Until they did this, almost all music had to be learned by ear, rather than read. Little by little choir masters discovered that instead of everybody's singing exactly the same notes at the same time, different voices could sing different notes and produce that sort of combined effect that we call *harmony*.

The most famous of musical composers of the later Renaissance period was Palestrina (pǎ lě strě'nà) (1526-1594). He composed hymns that are still used in the services of the Roman Catholic Church and elsewhere. As developed by the Church of his day, music contributed powerfully to the impressiveness and beauty of the services of the Church. (Time-graph, page 341.)

When Protestants separated from the Roman Catholic Church, some thought that it was their duty to give up church music, on

the ground that it was too "popish." In the history of the American colonies you will find many instances of that feeling. It was a long time before some churches would admit into their services anything except what was "lined out" by the leaders. Martin Luther, however, the foremost of the Protestant leaders of the sixteenth century, was a great lover of music. He wrote hymns himself and did what he could to promote the use of hymns in the churches. *A Mighty Fortress Is Our God* was one of his own compositions and is still considered one of the great hymns of the Protestant churches.

Does music mean anything more to you than the sounding of notes in some regular order? When you hear a choir sing, can you distinguish the parts sung by different voices? As an example of music of the Renaissance, or earlier periods, try a Gregorian chant or a hymn from Palestrina.

169. Types and Achievement in Architecture. — Architecture owes much to religion. Just as in ancient Greece the finest products of architecture were temples, so in the Middle Ages the grandest achievements in the field of building were the cathedrals.

For some time after the fall of Rome, however, very little building was done. If new structures of any size were put up, they were likely to be of the type of architecture we call *Romanesque* — which simply means "like Roman." It was most common in Italy and southern France. Romanesque structures were noted for the round arch, a dome (often of great size), and thick walls.

In the eleventh and twelfth centuries a new style of architecture appeared, which we commonly call *Gothic*. The Goths did not originate it, and the name at first was applied rather slightly, as if it were a barbarian style as compared with the Romanesque. In the Gothic style instead of the rounded arch we have the high pointed arch. Ribs in the roof of the building transfer some of the weight of the roof to the pillars. A sort of outside support is known as the *flying buttress*. Such features made it possible for walls to be less massive than before, and permitted more windows. Many windows were made of stained glass and were wonderfully beautiful. Some of these features of the new architecture you will see in the pictures on pages 263 and 320.



Courtesy German Railroads Information Office

THE CATHEDRAL AT COLOGNE

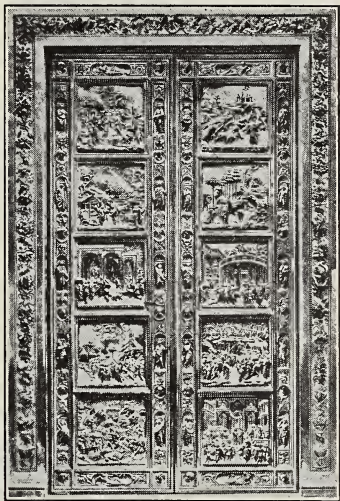
This magnificent building was started in 1248 and not completely finished until 1880.

Gothic cathedrals, with their tall slender spires reaching up toward heaven, suggest the religious aspiration of their builders. In a general way the cathedrals were constructed in the shape of a cross. They represent an enormous expense on the part of medieval congregations. Some cathedrals were a long time in building, for the cost of erecting them had to be met by collections from the people. When money gave out, the work had to be stopped until more could be secured. It took more than six hundred years to complete the cathedral of Cologne. After the revival of interest in things Greek and Latin, architecture swung back somewhat from the Gothic toward the Romanesque. Renaissance architecture, however, included some features taken from the Greek as well as the Roman.

Spain and other lands visited by Moors or Arabs show the style of architecture we call *Moorish*. Moorish arches, round pillars, highly decorated walls, and other distinctive features may be noticed wherever Spanish influence has reached.

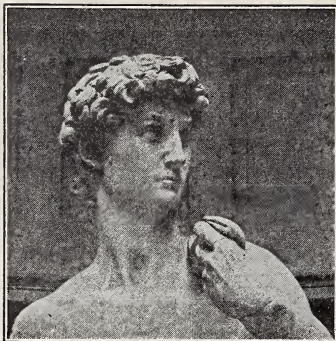
Give examples from your own community or elsewhere of styles of architecture mentioned in this section. Of what style is the Capitol at Washington? Why do you suppose so many state capitols are constructed in the same fashion?

170. Renaissance Glory in Art. — In Italy the grandest achievements of the Renaissance were in the field of art. Never before or since in any one country did there live at one time so many of the world's greatest artists. Greek sculptors expressed with fine



GHIBERTI'S FAMOUS BRONZE DOORS AT FLORENCE

This marvelous work cannot show the artist's fine detail when the picture is reduced, but the picture still gives you an idea of the supreme quality of the artist's talent.



MICHELANGELO'S DAVID

This colossal work was hewn out of one enormous block of marble. It is one of the most famous statues of all times.

of the bronze doors of the Baptistery at Florence. On these are shown many scenes of Biblical characters in a really lifelike fashion.

Outstanding among all the artists of the Renaissance was perhaps Michelangelo (1475-1564), an architect, a sculptor, a painter, and a poet. He gave his entire life to his art — so completely as to get the reputation of being unsociable. Among his sculptures the great statues of *Moses* and *David* are most famous. Among his paintings, probably the *Last Judgment* is best known. He planned the famous church of St. Peter's at Rome, the largest of all cathedrals, and the tomb of Lorenzo de' Medici, an illustrious member of a family that ruled Florence for a long time.

appreciation the human form and human emotions. The artists of the Renaissance did all this, and added to it imagination and religious devotion. They imitated no one; their work was of their own inspiration. Yet in much Renaissance art, while the heroes carved in marble and the figures painted on canvas looked real, they often did not represent real people.

One of the early Renaissance artists was Ghiberti (gĭ ber'tē) (1378-1455). His greatest achievement was the making



DA VINCI'S MONA LISA

Another all-round genius was Leonar'do da Vinci (vĩn'chē) (1452–1519), a sculptor, painter, architect, and musician and engineer as well. Two of his paintings almost everybody knows — the *Last Supper*, painted in an abbey at Milan, and *Mona Lisa* (mōna lēza), who ever since has had people guessing as to the meaning of her smile. Raph'ael (1483–1520) accomplished an enormous amount of work in his short life. He painted many madonnas, of which the *Sistine Madonna* is probably the most famous. His *Transfiguration* is also widely known. Titian (tĩsh'an) (1477–1576) was the greatest Venetian painter. Like other artists, he painted many religious pictures; but he did many portraits besides. To many of his women figures he gave the peculiar shade of red hair which we still call "Titian." Today we find many of the works of these Italian artists outside of Italy. *Mona Lisa* is in the Louvre (lōv), in Paris; the *Sistine Madonna* is in Dresden. Even England and the United States have the originals of some of these great works. (Time-graphs, pages 292 and 341.)

After 1550, Italian art began to decline. Its painters still produced madonnas and saints, but they lacked the fine spiritual quality of the earlier artists. By that time some artists of ability appeared in the northern countries of Europe. The German Holbein (hōl'bĩn) made numerous portraits, among them one of King Henry VIII of England (§ 186). Albrecht Dürer was famous both as a painter and as an engraver on wood.

In the next century, Dutch and Flemish artists became famous. Here were Van Dýck (§ 197), Rubens (page 131), and Rem'brandt. They painted portraits as well as religious themes. Rembrandt,



RAPHAEL'S SISTINE MADONNA

in particular, was especially successful with pictures of the people of his own time and country. Best known of them perhaps is the so-called *Night Watch*. Spain also produced some artists of note, such as Murillo (mū-rē'-yo) and Velasquez (veläs'keth). A large number of the works of these two painters are still in existence.

Can you imagine the feelings of painters and sculptors as they see their work taking form? Why do you suppose we have no artists today who rank with those we have just named? What famous Renaissance paintings have you seen or read about which we have not mentioned in this section?

171. What Passed for Science in Medieval Times. — Medieval men knew very little about the world in which they lived. Some did not think it was right to inquire into the ways of Nature, as if that would be questioning the work of God Himself. Still more did not think much about it, looking upon plagues and other misfortunes as either the work of the evil one or as a punishment sent by God. A favorite notion was that if we could only find it, there might be a means of changing other metals into gold. Magnifying glass was known in Europe in the thirteenth century, but not till a considerable time later was it used as the basis for the telescope and microscope.

Modern medicine and sanitation were unheard of and unthought of. The Arabs had some knowledge of the effect of certain drugs on the human body, but many prescriptions given by so-called physicians were utterly silly, such as mixing drinks in which the dead bodies of flies and animals were stirred up. Barbers practiced bloodletting as a part of their trade. Indeed, that is why you see the red stripe on barber poles even today, though barbers no longer let blood on purpose. Nobody had dreamed that germs might produce disease.

The one notable real scientist of medieval times was Roger Bacon (1214–1294). He was an Englishman who studied theology at Paris and then became a friar. He tried to find out the truth about things instead of accepting the superstitious or magical explanation that often was given. He predicted that the time would come when wagons and ships would move without horses or sails. He knew about gunpowder. Partly because he was looked upon as in league with the evil one and partly because he

associated with the Arabs, he had to spend fourteen years of his life in prison. (Time-graph, page 259.)

Bacon was far ahead of his time and had little influence upon people's thinking in his day. But when others like him began to



A CHEMIST'S LABORATORY OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY

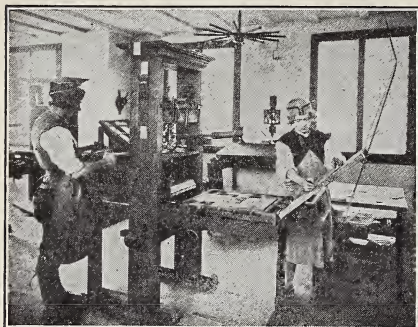
This illustration is reproduced from a painting by the elder Teniers.

ask *why* things occurred, a new era in human knowledge began to dawn. We are better than the people of medieval days only as we keep on thinking.

If you had lived in Roger Bacon's time, do you think you would have treated him any better than other people did? What do you suppose they would have done with Edison in the thirteenth century? Do people still believe in lucky and unlucky days? Are there any superstitions that you practice?

172. Medieval Inventions and Discoveries. — The Renaissance was encouraged by the use of new material things as well as by new ideas. Take, for example, the compass. Who first found out how it works we cannot tell, though the Chinese used it

rather early. Europeans knew about it before 1200, though it was not much more than a needle attached to a straw. With the compass, sailors dared to go out of sight of land and risk themselves on unknown waters. Sailors also found useful the



Ewing Galloway

GUTENBERG'S FIRST PRINTING PRESS

Compare the way it must have worked with the operation of a modern press.

astrolabe, which provides a means of telling latitude. Portolä'nī, or mariners' charts, first used by the Portuguese, also became common.

Though gunpowder was used during the Hundred Years' War, it was not regularly employed in battle until about the year 1500. The Chinese knew about gunpowder, too, long before

Europeans did. Gunpowder has accomplished some helpful things for mankind. Isn't it too bad that it has been used to kill so many millions of human beings? Yet it was a big help to Europeans when they explored new lands and had to fight with native tribes.

Some would call the printing press the greatest invention of all. The Chinese, it is thought, were first to make blocks which could be used in printing the same thing over and over again. But the printing press was not introduced into Europe from the East. John Gu'tenberg, of the German city of Mainz (mīnts), gets the credit for it (about 1450). Looking at a deck of cards he wondered if a block could not be made so that the same figures could be printed repeatedly instead of painting each card separately. He tried wood, leather, and iron, and finally decided that lead was the best material for his use. Experiments in printing words led to the making of a separate block for each letter. The first press in England was set up in 1476 by William Caxton; and Dutch, French, and other peoples had printing presses by that time. (Time-graphs, pages 289 and 292.)

Nothing has ever done so much for learning as the printing press. With it books could be made far faster and much cheaper than the best of the monks could make them by hand. It called for a greatly increased use of something to print on, and fortunately improvements in paper-making came along about the same time. There are plenty of ignorant people yet, but how many more there would be without the printing press!

Why is printing often called the "art preservative of all arts"? Why do you suppose we cannot connect the names of individuals with such inventions as the compass? Are there any modern inventions we use every day without knowing the name of the inventor?



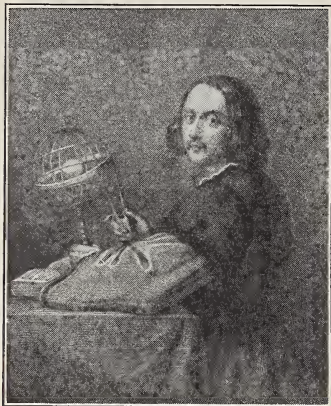
FROM GUTENBERG'S FIRST PRINTED BIBLE

This was printed at Mainz about 1455. In spite of the style of the letters, you may recognize that it was a Latin version that was being printed.

173. Thought about the Earth and the Universe. — Europeans lived in a small world in the Middle Ages, and probably the same could be said about the millions of people in China, India, Africa, and the New World. Europe knew hardly any more about the world in the fifteenth century than it did in the first century after Christ. Northern Europe was of much greater importance than in the days of ancient Rome, but it knew less than the Romans did about northern Africa.

With such limited knowledge about the world, no wonder few realized the place of the earth in the whole universe! Ever since Aristotle's time there had been some who believed that the earth is round. But others asked, "How could people stay on the 'under' side of the earth, or how could they walk with their heads downward? Would not a ship fall off if it went far on the surface of a globe?" Besides, it took considerable courage to profess publicly a belief that the earth is round, for many churchmen insisted that the Bible denies it. Indeed, it does speak of the "four corners of the earth," though we understand now that such an expression was simply figurative.

A Polish scientist, Kopernik, or Coper'nicus (1473-1543), was bold enough to believe that Ptolemy was wrong in making the earth the center of the universe. The earth, he said, is simply a planet going around the sun. Today we take the theory of



NICOLAUS COPERNICUS

Copernicus for granted, but it was revolutionary four hundred years ago. He did not dare to publish it until the very end of his life. Refer to the time-graphs on pages 341 and 372 to place Copernicus and Galileo in their correct relations.

Galile'o (1564-1642) went still further in his acquaintance with the universe. He discovered the principle of the pendulum and constructed a thermometer and a telescope. With his telescope he saw Jupiter's moons. Because he declared that the earth moves

around the sun, he was tried by a church court for heresy. He was commanded to get down on his knees and declare that he would no longer teach such a doctrine. But according to the story, he murmured as he rose from his knees, "It does move just the same."

If you had lived in the time of Copernicus, would you have accepted his theories? Are there any people today who do not believe that the earth is round?

174. A New Interest in Asia. — For several reasons some Europeans were inquisitive about Asia. Trade with the Near East, the use of goods from India, and the stories of returned Crusaders helped to make them so. In the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries this curiosity was considerably quickened by the reports of travelers to the mysterious lands in the East. King Louis IX of France sent Friar Rubruk (or Rubruquis)¹ as an envoy to the

¹ (rūbrūk or rubru-kē).

Tartar chieftain in central Asia. When he came back, he told of hearing of a navigable ocean east of Cathay', as China was called, and also of the island of Zipan'go, by which he meant Japan. Roger Bacon wondered whether the same ocean which washed the shores of western Europe reached clear over to Asia on the east.

To arouse a lively interest in Asia, however, nothing equaled the stories told by Marco Polo. Between 1271 and 1295 he, with his father and uncle, went across Asia, south through China into Indo-China, and back around India. He told about seeing palaces roofed with gold and other fabulous wealth unlike anything in Europe. One wonders just how much of these stories to believe; but what Marco Polo saw may have seemed grand compared with the way Europeans lived in those days. Anyway, people had a keener desire than ever to learn more about Asia and to look for new ways to get there. (Time-graph on page 259.)



MARCO POLO

As an artist thought he must have looked.

Does a structure like the Empire State Building or the Washington Monument seem as grand to one who sees it every day as to one who sees it for the first time? Might there have been something in Marco Polo's mind similar to the feelings of a country boy who visits a great city for the first time?

175. New Lands and New Ways to Old Lands. — By the fifteenth century Portugal and Spain were about ready to launch out for their share of the world trade. There was not much use of their trying to get to Asia by way of Alexandria or Constantinople, because Venice and Genoa had those routes pretty well "sewed up." Besides, the Ottoman Turks were making it less easy and less healthful for Christians to do business in the Near East. Why not try to find some other way to India? Look at the map, and you will see how natural it was, as Portuguese sailors became more and more bold, to move farther south along the coast of Africa.

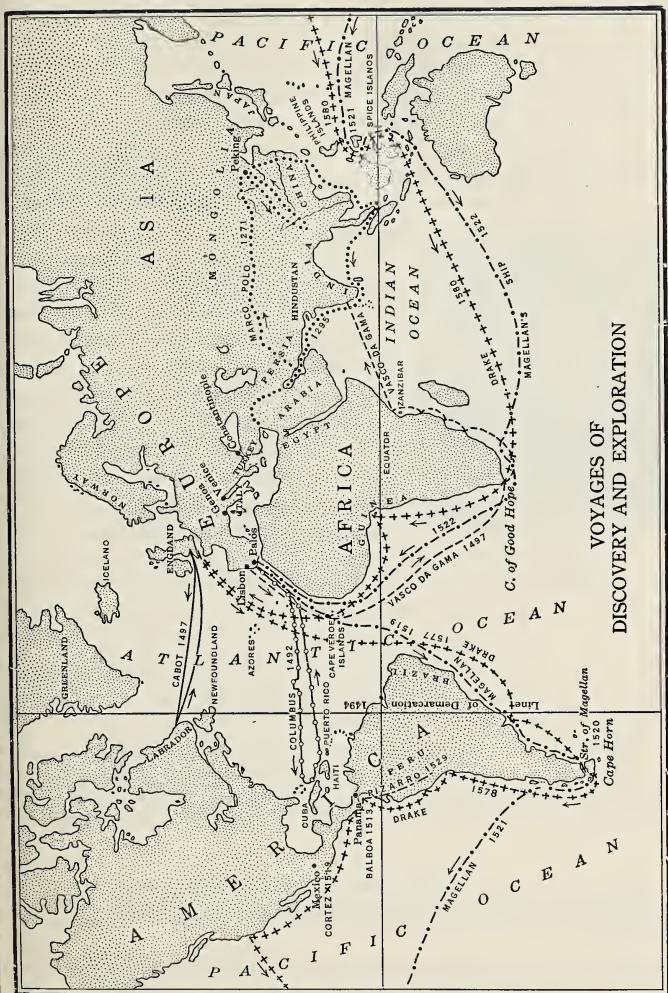
During much of the fifteenth century, Prince Henry, of the Portuguese royal family, gave freely his time and money to promote exploration to the south. After his death, others continued his work. By 1487 Bartholomew Diaz (dē'äth) sailed around the cape which was soon named the Cape of Good Hope. Ten years later Vasco da Gä'ma sailed in the same direction, but kept on to the north and east and reached Cal'icut in India (1498). Immediately the Portuguese turned their attention to this way to the East and for some time made rich profits out of Indian trade. (To get the time relation of important events in this section see the time-graphs on pages 292 and 341.)

But what about the idea of reaching the East by sailing West? If there is any date an American school boy or girl knows, it is 1492. Surely you know the story of Columbus, who crossed the Atlantic thinking that he would come to India or China. When he did sight land in the Bahamas, he thought he had reached the East Indian islands, and named the people whom he saw Indians. (Turn back to the picture on page 294.)

So this was Asia? What riches would lie waiting for those who would come and take them? But no — Columbus made four trips to the New World and brought back no gold, while Vasco da Gama did get a rich shipload of goods from India. Hero for only a short while, Columbus became a butt of ridicule and died without knowing he had discovered a new continent. John Cabot, sailing for England, even preceded him in seeing the mainland of the New World.

Portugal also got a share in the New World. The explorer Cabräl', sailing off to the south, was driven out of his course by the wind and reached Brazil (1500); so that part of the New World came under the flag of Portugal. The Pope, to avert arguments between Spain and Portugal about their discoveries, set up (1493) a dividing line three hundred miles west of the Azores. All new lands found west of that line should go to Spain; all east of it to Portugal. This was the famous Bull of Demarcation. A little later (1494) the line was moved farther west and accepted by treaty between the two countries.

The King of France said he should like to see the clause in Father Adam's will that gave the world to Spain and Portugal. Within



VOYAGES OF DISCOVERY AND EXPLORATION

a few years, the Italian Verrazā'no (1524) visited the New World for France, and Cartier (car tyā') (1534, 1535) went up the St. Lawrence to the present site of Montreal. But the New World had no permanent French or English colonies before 1600.

For a considerable time men continued to think that the new-found land might project from the coast of Asia. Amerigo Vespucci (amerē'go vespoo'chē) sailed on one expedition to the New World. Letters he wrote after he came back made a strong



MAGELLAN

impression on some of their readers. The suggestion was offered that since he had seen probably a "fourth part" of the world, it should be named after him. And so the New World came to be called America after a man whose only service was in writing about it.

Ferdinand Magel'lan went farther and saw more than any who preceded him. In 1519 he started from Spain with an expedition which followed south along the coast of South America and through the strait now named after

him. He sailed north and west in such calm waters that he named them the Pacific Ocean. He landed on the Marianas and then sailed on to the Philippines where he died. One boat out of his fleet kept on, rounded the coast of Africa, and finally reached home, a trip of three years. After such an epoch-making voyage, there could be no question, it would seem, that the earth is round.

Did it take any more heroism for Columbus to make his voyage than was needed by Vasco da Gama or Magellan? Has the spread of geographical knowledge ever been increased in an equal period as much as in the thirty years from Columbus' first voyage to the return of Magellan's ship?

176. How the Renaissance Promoted Civilization. — The Renaissance worked significant changes in several fields of human interest.

(1) The Renaissance made men acquainted once more with the works of the masters of ancient learning and restored them to people's cultural life. (2) It broadened men's interests and gave

them a desire for a greater variety in life. (3) It gave to the world wonderful achievements in art and literature which will always be a part of our priceless possessions. (4) It aroused in men a spirit of inquiry so that they tried to find the truth about the world in which they lived. (5) It brought a much wider knowledge about the earth. New lands were discovered. Even a truer understanding of the place of the earth in the universe came about. (6) It caused the use of many valuable inventions without which discoveries and conquests would have been impossible. The printing press spread the new knowledge infinitely more widely. (7) It gave people a new confidence in themselves and a courage to think and do new things.

So the Renaissance marked a new period in the life of the world. As we look back on it now, life in the year 1500 may seem crude and backward enough, but then it was a new day and age in the world's history. Some elements of almost every notable phase of modern life, in culture, industry, religion, and government, can be found in the Renaissance.

Is there anything in the recent accomplishments of men that would compare in significance with the discoveries and inventions of the Renaissance period? Is there the same keen anxiety to learn new things today that marked the thinking of intelligent people in the Renaissance?

A king may rule a nation, a church restrain from sin,
But both for art and letters find a place;
The hand must pen the message, portray the dream within,
The chisel give cold stone a living grace.
So once more scholars studied the thoughts of men of old,
And master artists blessed their day and ours.
New learning taught its lessons; men's thoughts became more bold;
And genius blazed in many tongues its powers.
And then beyond the waters that washed familiar shores
Brave souls found lands and peoples and gained new treasure stores.

IDEAS TO STAY WITH US

Learning in the Middle Ages was limited, and most of it was controlled by the Church. Universities, however, rose to importance, some of them famous today.

Much medieval learning adhered closely to the teachings of the past. A few, however, like Abelard of Paris, urged that students should think for themselves and raise questions in order to find the truth.

In the later Middle Ages, the languages spoken in Europe today began to take form — the Teutonic languages of northern Europe and the Romance of southern Europe. The English language came to include both Teutonic and Latin elements. A few great writers like Dante and Chaucer helped to give definite form to the languages in which they wrote.

The Renaissance started in Italy and spread out into marvelous new activities in many fields of culture. Its finest flowering at first was in art. Sculptors and painters produced works which in number and quality have never been surpassed. In northern Europe the chief glory of the Renaissance was in literature. Types of architecture came into being during the medieval and Renaissance periods which have furnished models for great builders ever since.

Medieval science would hardly be called science today; but in the latter part of the Middle Ages, inventions new to Europeans began to come into general use. A few advanced thinkers were able to develop theories of the universe which we accept today.

Travelers in Asia and changes in the conditions of commerce turned people's attention to the East. The Portuguese found a route to India around the continent of Africa. Columbus led the way to the New World across the Atlantic to the West. Magellan made the first voyage around the world.

So in many different ways the Renaissance gave new interests to men, broadened their horizons, and paved the way for modern civilization.

NAMES AND TERMS WE SHOULD UNDERSTAND

- | | | |
|--------------------------------------|---|-----------------|
| 1. Renaissance | 14. Erasmus; <i>The Praise of Folly</i> | 27. Velasquez |
| 2. Lorenzo de' Medici | 15. More; <i>Utopia</i> | 28. Murillo |
| 3. Trivium | 16. Cervantes; <i>Don Quixote</i> | 29. Rubens |
| 4. Quadrivium | 17. Palestrina | 30. Van Dyck |
| 5. University | 18. Romanesque | 31. Rembrandt |
| 6. Abelard | 19. Gothic | 32. Holbein |
| 7. Schoolmen | 20. Pointed arch | 33. Dürer |
| 8. Scholasticism | 21. Flying buttress | 34. Roger Bacon |
| 9. Dante; <i>Divina Commedia</i> | 22. Ghiberti | 35. Compass |
| 10. Petrarch | 23. Michelangelo | 36. Astrolabe |
| 11. Boccaccio | 24. Raphael | 37. Portolani |
| 12. Chaucer; <i>Canterbury Tales</i> | 25. Da Vinci | 38. Gutenberg |
| 13. Humanists | 26. Titian | 39. Caxton |
| | | 40. Copernicus |
| | | 41. Galileo |

- | | | |
|------------------|--------------|----------------|
| 42. Marco Polo | 46. Da Gama | 49. John Cabot |
| 43. Cathay | 47. Cabral | 50. Vespucci |
| 44. Prince Henry | 48. Columbus | 51. Magellan |
| 45. Diaz | | |

DATES WORTH REMEMBERING

- | | |
|--|-----------------------------|
| 1450 (?) Gutenberg's printing press | 1519-1522 Magellan's voyage |
| 1492 First voyage of Columbus | 1543 Death of Copernicus |
| 1497 John Cabot discovered North America | |

INTERESTING SUBJECTS YOU MAY LIKE TO KNOW ABOUT

- | | |
|--------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| The Medici Family in Florence | Thomas More and His <i>Utopia</i> |
| Medieval Universities | Some Famous Cathedrals |
| Medieval Books | Medieval Science and Magic |
| The Story of Abelard | Roger Bacon |
| The Life and Writings of Dante | The Early Printers |
| Chaucer and His Contributions | The Story of Prince Henry of Portugal |
| Erasmus and His Influence | |

INTERESTING PROJECTS YOU MAY LIKE TO UNDERTAKE

1. On a map of Europe show places of interest in connection with the Renaissance. Include at least the following: Paris, Milan, Salerno, Padua, Bologna, Oxford, Cambridge, Prague, Vienna, Cordova, Florence, Cologne, Rheims, Rome, Nuremberg, Mainz, Venice, London, Lisbon, Madrid, Seville, Genoa.
2. Make sketches or models illustrating different types of architecture. (Illustrate them from buildings in your own town or some nearby city.)
3. Work up illustrated lectures on Renaissance artists. (One pupil might treat the artists of Italy; another might take Germany; another Holland; another Spain. If lantern slides are not available, use prints of notable paintings or pieces of sculpture.)
4. Conduct an imaginary tour of works of art that one might see in Europe today, visiting the different cities where notable paintings or statues of Renaissance artists may be found.
5. Arrange dramatizations of some of the following: Marco Polo after his return to Venice; a conversation between Galileo and a clergyman who thought Galileo was wrong; how Columbus was received after his different voyages.
6. An editorial or news story in an imaginary Spanish newspaper after Magellan's ship returned.
7. Write some pages from an imaginary diary of Columbus, or Magellan, or Vasco da Gama.
8. Construct a sketch or model of a Viking ship or the *Santa Maria*.

9. Arrange a debate on the subject: Resolved, that gunpowder has been more of a curse than a blessing to the world.
10. Arrange a "Who Am I?" exercise on important characters mentioned in this unit.
11. Draw cartoons suggesting incidents real or imagined in the life of Roger Bacon, Columbus, or other characters mentioned in this unit.
12. Continue your chart of Trends in World Progress.

PLACES FOR FURTHER READING

Adams, *Civilization during the Middle Ages*, XV
 Haaren and Poland, *Famous Men of Modern Times*, XV, XXX
 Ogg, *Source Book of Medieval History*, XXI, XXVI
 Robinson, *Readings in European History*
 Tappan, *Heroes of the Middle Ages*, XXX, XXXI, XXXIII, XXXV

Cheyney, *European Background of American History*
 Coulton, *Life in the Middle Ages*
 Goodyear, *History of Art*
 Hamlin, *A History of Architecture*
 Hudson, *The Story of the Renaissance*
 Oliphant, *The Makers of Florence*
 Randall, *The Making of the Modern Mind*
 Sedgwick and Tyler, *A Short History of Science*
 Symonds, *History of the Renaissance in Italy*
 Synge, *Book of Discovery*

Clemens, <i>The Prince and the Pauper</i>	Eliot, <i>Romola</i>
Converse, <i>Long Will</i>	Johnston, <i>1492</i>
Crawford, <i>Marietta, A Maid of Venice</i>	Seawell, <i>The Son of Columbus</i>
	Stein, <i>Gabriel and the Hour Book</i>



THE TOWN AND PALACE OF AVIGNON

Here the popes stayed during the period of their "captivity" under the kings of France.

IX. DIVISIONS AND WARS AMONG CHRISTIANS

"The Reformation of the sixteenth century had its birth and growth in a union of spiritual and secular forces such as the world has seldom seen at any other period of its history." — POLLARD

The many-sided Renaissance, with its encouragement of independent thinking and its broadening of human interests, spread over into the field of religion. There it had most unforeseen and epoch-making effects. Many of the numerous religious denominations of today may be traced back to the extraordinary break in the Christian Church which is called the Protestant Revolt, or the Reformation. In many ways outside of religious activities this movement changed the life of the world — in literature, in government, and in international relations.

Pointers for Our Study:

Were there any conditions in the Church itself that tended to weaken its authority or influence?

How did the break in the Church actually begin, and how far did it extend?

Who were the chief leaders, and what were the outstanding events connected with the movement?

How did this religious controversy affect the policies of the rulers of nations and the life of the people?

177. Why the Church Lost Its Hold on Some People. — The great organization of the Christian Church, which wielded such sway over kings and people in the time of Pope Innocent III, was in less than two centuries seriously weakened. In several countries strong kings came to the throne who made people feel respect for them and patriotism for their country. As this feeling grew strong, men's reverence for a ruler outside of their own country grew less, even though he was the head of their Church. Kings, especially, did not like the idea of sending money to Rome. Besides, some greedy princes wanted to get hold of valuable land belonging to the Church. Moreover, some churchmen, especially in high positions, did not practice what the Church taught. Some lived immoral lives or took bribes for favors they could grant or bought their positions in the Church.

For one disastrous period in the life of the Church, the popes were not particularly to blame. Pope Boniface VIII got into a controversy with King Philip the Fair, of France. Philip sent soldiers into Italy to capture Boniface and bring him to France. But the Pope died before this was accomplished. Then Philip had a French churchman chosen as Pope, and Avignon in southern France for many years was the residence of the popes. This tended to weaken the prestige and influence of the Pope for a long time. In comparison with the captivity of the Jews, this period has been called the "Babylonian captivity" of the popes. (Time-graph, pages 289 and 292.)

The Babylonian captivity was followed by the *Great Schism* (or division). When the Pope died in 1377, the cardinals elected an Italian Pope. The King of France refused to accept him and brought about the election of another. For nearly thirty years two people claimed to be Pope. Then a church council asked both to resign, and elected a new one; that made three, because the other two would not retire.

At last a Great Council was assembled at Constance (1415), to put an end to this disgraceful situation. It got rid of all three claimants and chose a different man, who again made Rome his headquarters. This whole episode lessened the respect of the people for the office of Pope and provoked discontent with the Church among people who had been entirely loyal to it.

Show how the existence of more than one person claiming to be Pope conflicted with the whole Catholic doctrine. Would any ruler or government today undertake to dictate to a Pope as Philip the Fair did?

178. Discontent and Unrest in the Religious World. — Suppressing heresy was a problem that worried leaders of the medieval Church. A *heretic* is a person who holds views contrary to those laid down by religious authority. Since the Church and its teachings seemed the most important things in life, to disagree with them seemed a fearfully serious offense.

In some countries, particularly Spain, a system of courts, known as the *Inquisition*, hunted and tried heretics and punished those who would not recant — that is, take back heretical statements. The Church itself did not claim the right to put heretics to death; but it might turn them over to the officers of the government, and then they might be burned at the stake or otherwise severely punished.

At almost any period in the history of the Church, however, there were some who conscientiously disagreed with orthodox doctrines. Sometimes whole neighborhoods felt that way. Two of the chief opponents of the practices and teachings of the medieval Church were John Wyclif (1320–1384), of England, and John Huss (1373–1415), of Bohemia.

Wyclif was luckier than many critics, for he had strong friends at the court of the king, including the queen herself. He not only urged the government to pay no more feudal dues to the Pope, but even declared that the Church would be better off without any Pope at all. The Bible, he said, authorized only priests and deacons as officers in the Church. Protestants have called him the “Morning Star of the Reformation.”

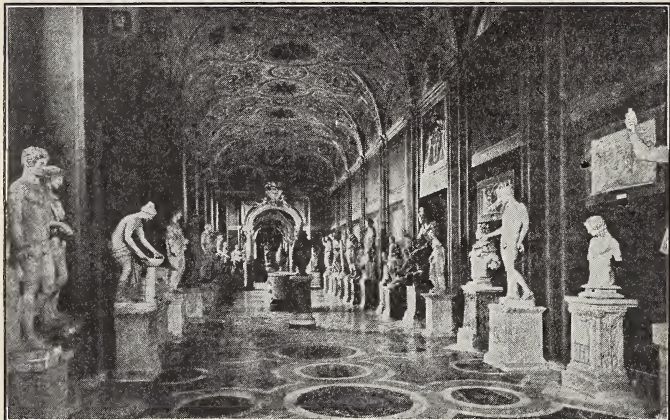
Wyclif translated the Bible into English. When you recall that every copy had to be made by hand, you see what a tre-



WYCLIF

mendous task it was. In spite of attempts to suppress it, his translation was read and helped toward settling the English language into a definite form (§ 165).

Ideas like Wyclif's gained considerable following in Bohemia, the native country of Queen Anne of England. There John Huss was the center of the movement. The Council of Constance (§ 177) summoned Huss and accused him of being a heretic.



THE GALLERY OF STATUES IN THE VATICAN MUSEUM

Publishers' Photo

Of course, this particular gallery has not always looked just like this. It does present, however, an example of the extraordinary collection of works of art and other valuable things which have been accumulated during the centuries by the popes. The Library and Museum which form a part of the Vatican Palace are among the finest in the world.

The Emperor promised that if Huss went before the Council to answer the charges against him, his life would be protected. But the Council declared that a promise made to a heretic was not binding, and refused to respect it. Huss was condemned to be burned at the stake; but the influence of his teachings in Bohemia was not entirely crushed.

Still another famous reformer was Savonarō'la (1452-1498). For a while he lived as an ordinary friar; but after going to Florence in 1490, he began to preach to the people with great

Magellan 1519-1522		Council of Trent		Battle of Lepanto 1571	
REFORMATION AND COUNTER-REFORMATION					
Luther's 95 Theses 1517		Copernicus	Peace of Augsburg 1555	Palestrina	British East India Company 1600
Henry VII	Henry VIII (England)			Elizabeth (England)	
1509	Act of Supremacy 1534	1547	1558	1588 (1603)	
DaVinci Raphael	Michelangelo	Titian Loyola	Calvin at Geneva	Drake	Armada
Spanish and Portuguese colonization			St. Augustine 1565	Philip II (Spain)	Henry IV (Fr.)
				Spenser	Shakespeare
1501		16TH CENTURY A.D.		1600	

Refer to this time-graph frequently throughout this unit.

effect. He attacked show and extravagance and urged people to give up their jewels and other expensive luxuries. For a while he was very popular and had great influence with the people of Florence. But some of the high church officials became jealous of him and forbade him to preach. Finally his enemies succeeded in getting him excommunicated and then put to death.

Do you think it would be possible today for a preacher or religious leader to obtain such a following or stir up such enemies as were gained by Wyclif, Huss, and Savonarola?

We can see now that discontent was ready to blaze out, though the occasion which caused it to do so came about rather unexpectedly. The later part of the Renaissance was a time of new ideas in religious thought, sometimes sensible and sometimes otherwise. Some people began to question the authority of the clergy in matters of doctrine. Peasants in England or Germany objected to paying money to be used to build a cathedral in Rome, though the popes argued that since Rome was the great center of Christianity, it was perfectly right to make the headquarters of the Church attractive. Motives not religious also were mixed with the religious movements, as when German princes took advantage of the disturbed condition to shake off obligations to the Holy Roman Empire.

179. Martin Luther and His Break with the Pope. — The movement which we call today the *Reformation*, or the *Protestant Revolt*, centers around the life and activities of Martin Luther (1483-1546), a German monk. Luther was born in a peasant family

in Eisleben (is'lā-ben), in Saxony. His parents gave him a good education; and after some notable preaching, he became professor of theology at the University of Wittenberg (vit'tenberk) (1507).

Luther became somewhat disturbed over certain teachings of the Church, because he was convinced that the Bible teaches that salvation comes through faith rather than as a result of good works. Then he was aroused by the selling of indulgences in Germany by a friar named John Tetzel. An *indulgence* was a grant of relief from some of the experiences which a soul might



MARTIN LUTHER

A portrait of Luther from his residence in Wittenberg

otherwise have to pass through in purgatory. It was intended to be given only in consideration of some pious deed or gift of money made by one who had repented of his wrongdoing. Now Tetzel sold indulgences so freely that the matter of repentance could not get proper emphasis. Some who bought indulgences looked upon them virtually as permissions to keep on sinning.

Luther was so stirred by this sale of indulgences, and other matters (1517), that he nailed

on the church door in Wittenberg ninety-five "theses," or propositions, in Latin, and challenged anybody to debate these with him. They were afterward translated into German and circulated generally all over the country. Luther soon went still further and denied the authority of the Pope, declaring that the Bible was the sole rule of faith and practice.

Pope Leo X at first thought of the controversy in Germany as simply a "squabble of monks." But, when he discovered that the trouble was much more far-reaching than that, he sent a bull to Germany, ordering Luther to repent and threatening to excommunicate him. Luther made a copy of this papal bull and burned it publicly in the town square of Wittenberg (1520). Then the Pope asked Charles V, who was king of Spain and Holy

Roman Emperor, to put Luther "under the ban of the empire." A person thus "banned" lost all right to legal protection and anyone was free even to kill him.

Luther was ordered to appear before a diet, or council, at the city of Worms (1521). When he was asked to recant, he declared: "Unless I am proved wrong by Scripture or plain reason, I cannot and will not recant, because to act against conscience is unholy and unsafe. Here I stand. So help me God, I cannot do otherwise." The decision of the Diet was against him, and he was proclaimed a heretic and an outlaw.

Luther's friends now hurried him away to the Wartburg (värt'boork), a castle where he could stay in seclusion until the excitement died down. While there, he translated the Bible into German. This work had not only religious but literary importance, since it helped to give the German language a definite literary form. Luther also wrote hymns and treatises on religious topics.

Luther often seemed inconsistent, yet we can hardly doubt his sincerity. He had a quick temper and was so positive in his own opinions that he could not always be fair toward others. He set aside his vow against marriage by marrying a nun, who, with his aid, had run away from a convent. He was fortunate in having the support of some influential German princes. Otherwise he might have met the same fate as Huss. He died while on a visit to his birthplace in Saxony, in 1546.

If you can think of Luther apart from his ideas on purely religious matters, do you admire him?

For locations connected with this unit, see the map on page 345.

180. How the Lutheran Movement Spread. — For some time Luther seemed to be the national leader for whom discontented people in Germany had been looking. Some German princes followed him because they accepted his teachings, and some because they wanted to get rid of their own obligations to the Pope. Luther also had a large following among the poor people. Some of the discontented peasants started a rebellion known as the *Peasants' War*. In the course of it, they sometimes robbed castles and murdered their owners. Luther had no sympathy

with acts of that kind; and when he showed his disapproval some of the peasants thought he had gone back on them.

In 1529 a diet was held at Speyer (spire; in English, Spires) which approved everything done at the Diet at Worms and declared all followers of Luther to be outlaws. Some of the Lutheran princes and their associates drew up a protest against this action. They were called *Protestants*, and thus there came into being the term which is today applied to most Christians who are not Roman Catholics or connected with the Eastern, or Greek, church.

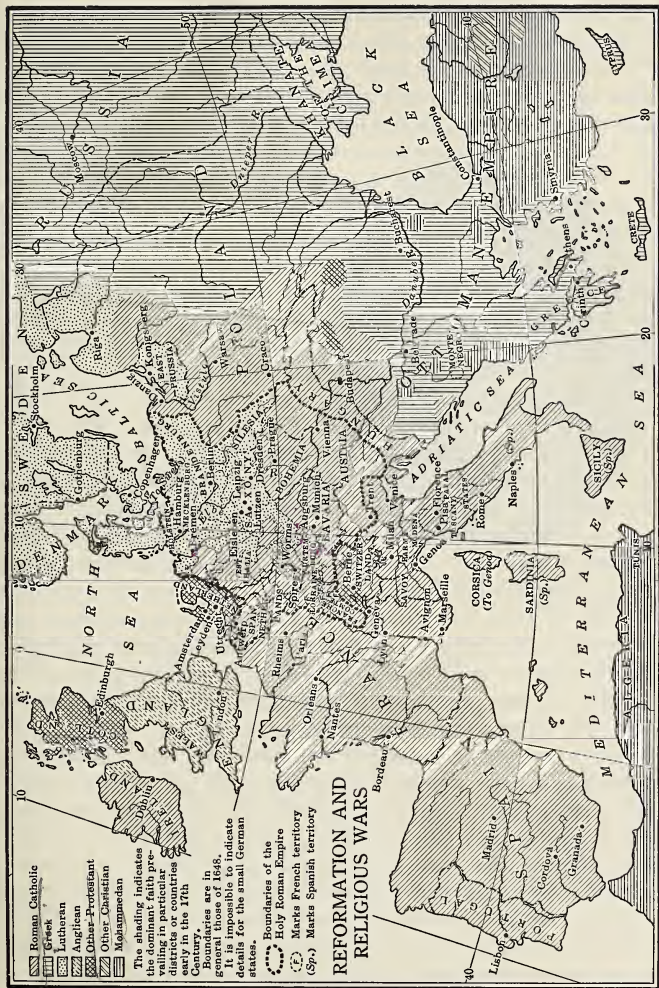
In 1530 the Augsburg (owks'boork) Confession was published, which set forth the religious teachings of Luther and is still the basis of the beliefs of the Lutheran Church. Luther did not advocate abandoning all the old services and customs, but simply those which he believed were not in harmony with the Bible. He gave an important place in church services to preaching and the singing of hymns, and had the services carried on in the language of the people instead of in Latin.

By 1530 most of Northern Germany, and Denmark, Norway, and Sweden had accepted Luther's teachings. Civil war occurred, however, between Protestant princes and followers of the Emperor Charles V. Peace was made in 1555 — the Peace of Augsburg. In accordance with this settlement, a king or prince might decide for himself whether he would be a Lutheran or a Catholic. Then the people over whom he ruled must either accept his faith or move out. We should not call that a satisfactory arrangement today, but for a time it established peace in Germany. It was a definite gain for the Protestants, because now Lutheranism was recognized as lawful.

Why did Luther not side with the peasants in the Peasants' War?

Why might such a settlement as that reached in the Peace of Augsburg be more satisfactory in 1555 than it would be today?

181. Protestant Leaders in Switzerland. — Some German Protestants did not wholly agree with Luther's teachings. In other countries separate Protestant movements arose, though no one can tell how much they owed to the start Luther gave Protestantism in Germany. Switzerland in particular, though parts of it are still Catholic, as they were in the sixteenth century, became the home of some famous Protestants.



The first notable Swiss reformer was Ulrich Zwingli (tsving'li) (1484–1531), of Zurich. He lived about the same time as Martin Luther, though not so long. He was well educated. He went further away than Luther from the Catholic Church, because he declared that people should believe and practice only those things that were expressly commanded in the Bible. Luther was willing to permit anything which did not seem inconsistent with it.

Zwingli declared that parish priests should be elected by the people of their parish, and asserted that every individual had the right to interpret the Bible for himself. An effort was made to bring Luther and Zwingli together, but Luther would not make any concessions on the points where their opinions differed. War broke out in Switzerland between Catholic and Protestant parties, and in 1531 Zwingli was killed in battle.

The other great Swiss reformer was John Calvin. He was born in France. He believed that Luther's ideas were more nearly correct than the Catholic doctrines, but, like Zwingli, did not entirely agree with Luther. Finding it dangerous to stay in France, he established himself in Geneva. For a number of years Calvin was the virtual ruler of the city. He set up high standards of conduct for the people. He insisted on a close observance of the Sabbath, and allowed little in the way of amusement. He himself lived very plainly — we would say in poverty — and opposed showy churches, so that people's attention would not be distracted from religious things. Geneva under his rule was a notable example of what we sometimes call Puritanism carried into the everyday life of the people.

Calvin's religious views were set forth in *The Institutes of the Christian Religion*, a book published in 1536. He set up a representative government in the church, with ministers chosen by the members, and with "elders" or "presbyters" as the other chief officers. The name *Presbyterian* came into use to represent Calvin's ideas of church organization and belief. Perhaps because Calvin was tremendously sincere and earnest he could not be tolerant in religion. The worst blot on his record is the burning at the stake of a physician named Servē'tus, who held views much like those of Unitarians today (§ 183).

John Knox, who was with Calvin in Geneva for some time,

carried his teachings to Scotland and made Presbyterianism the established religion in that country. Some people in England also accepted Calvin's views, as did the majority of the Dutch. Many settlers in the English colonies of the New World who came to secure religious freedom for themselves brought Calvin's ideas along with them. In France, too, as far as Protestantism made headway, it was Calvin's variety of it rather than Luther's.

How strong is Presbyterianism in your section of the country? Do you know any prominent American who was named after Calvin?

182. A Reformation in the Catholic Church.—In the early years of the Protestant movement, the Catholic Church tried to counteract its effects chiefly by using stern measures upon its leaders. Catholics may have thought that these

movements would break up anyway. Besides, some popes — Leo X, for instance — were as much interested in art as they were in the religious activities of the Church, and some gave much attention to promoting the interests of their relatives.

One of the first movements which helped to revive Catholic strength was the Society of Jesus, or the Jesuit order. A Spanish soldier named Ignatius Loyola, while lying wounded, was given the *Lives of the Saints* to read. He determined then to give his life in behalf of the Church. He put away his military outfits and founded this Society of Jesus, which was to be organized somewhat like an army and made up of men who were just as willing to sacrifice themselves for the Church as for a king or emperor.

Jesuits soon became powerful. They founded schools in many countries which gave the people the best teaching available at the time. Children of Protestant parents attended such schools,



Ewing Galloway

IGNATIUS LOYOLA

Loyola lived from 1491 to 1556.

and frequently became interested in Catholic religious teaching. Jesuits often became advisers to kings and other prominent people. Jesuit missionaries went out to every distant part of the world. Francis Xavier (zä'vier), the "Apostle to the Indies," won thousands of converts in Asia. At one time it seemed as if he might even convert the Japanese. Other heroic priests came to the New World and worked as missionaries in French Canada and in the Spanish colonies in Mexico and South America.

To correct any conditions that might lead people to become Protestants, Pope Paul III called the famous Council of Trent, which met in Trent off and on for eighteen years (1545-1563). Protestant leaders were invited to attend this Council, but they declined. The Council defined more clearly the doctrines of the Church and set up new standards in its teaching and policy, so that never since has there been any extensive movement out of the Catholic Church into Protestantism. This revival of interest in the Catholic Church is often called the *Counter Reformation*.

The Council of Trent declared that the Pope was the rightful head of the entire Christian Church and that not only the Bible but the established customs and traditions of the Church deserved everybody's acceptance. It demanded that all clergymen should be sincere, honest, and proper in their conduct. Some changes were made in church services so as to increase their interest. More hymns were introduced. Arrangements were made for translating the Bible into different languages.

Now that the printing press had appeared, it was easy for books to be circulated that contained teachings contrary to Catholic beliefs. To prevent Catholics from reading them, the Pope was authorized to prepare a list of books which were forbidden to Catholics. This was known as the *Index*.

The use of the Inquisition to suppress Protestant ideas was renewed. In such countries as Spain and Italy Protestantism was practically blotted out. Other countries where Protestantism had made little headway, such as Hungary, Poland, and Bavaria, were kept safely under Catholic control.

If the program adopted by the Council of Trent had been undertaken thirty years earlier, do you think the Reformation would have taken place at all?

183. What Did the Various Sects Believe? — In the religious controversy of the sixteenth century religion and politics were often closely mixed. But there were some clear and honest differences of belief. For instance, Roman Catholics believe that all Christians should look to the Pope as the head of the Church on earth. Protestants are not willing to accept him as in any unique sense the representative of God. Catholics teach the doctrine of transubstantiation — that the bread and wine used in the Mass actually become the body and blood of Christ. Most Protestants consider the service, which they variously call the Lord's Supper, Holy Eucharist, or Communion, simply a memorial of Christ's last supper with his Apostles, and take the bread and wine merely as *symbolizing* Christ's body and blood.

Protestants do not observe holy days in commemoration of saints to the same extent that Catholics do; nor do they give just the same sort of reverence to Mary, the mother of Jesus. Protestant ministers are allowed to marry; Roman Catholic priests and nuns are not. Catholics believe in the existence of purgatory — a sort of intermediate state after death, through which a soul must pass before it is made fit to enter heaven — and emphasize the importance of confessing one's sins to the priest. Protestants do not teach purgatory; and while they encourage people to come to their ministers for counsel and confession, they do not make it compulsory.

Catholics and Protestants are alike in teaching of God as the Father and of Jesus Christ as His Son, through whose death it was made possible for men to be saved from their sins. Unitarians, however, emphasize the "oneness" of God rather than the idea of the Trinity — "God in three Persons," or three Divine Persons in one God. Both Catholics and Protestants look to the Bible as the source of their religious ideals, though Catholics accept the traditions of the Church and the decrees of popes and councils as also having authority.

If each individual has the right to interpret the Bible for himself, there are sure to be different interpretations of certain matters. That is why there are so many different Protestant denominations. Everybody is likely to find some church that suits his own likes and opinions, and many believe such a condition is encouraging

to sincere religion. The differences among Protestants often concern chiefly the form and ceremony used in church services. There is almost the widest possible range between the customs prevailing among "high church" Episcopalians and the Quakers, or Friends, who do not even have regular preachers.

From anything you have yourself observed, can you imagine nations going to war today over matters of religion? If not, do you conclude that people today have a truer understanding of religion than those of three or four centuries ago, or do they care less about it?

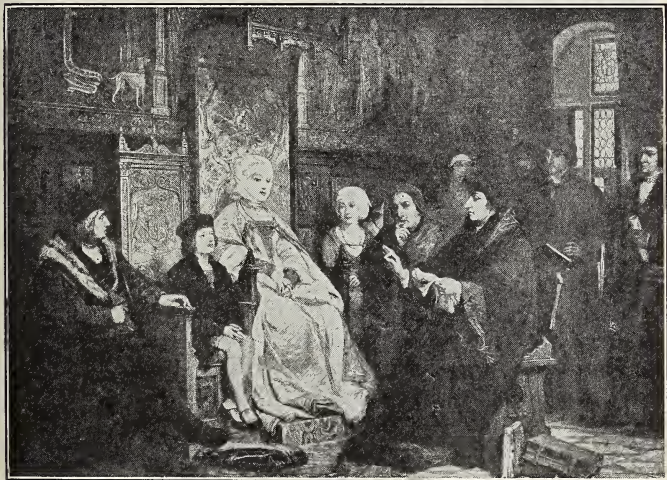
184. Spain during the Reformation Period. — "One people, one faith" was the slogan of those who believed that religious disagreement of any kind should be blotted out. Nowhere was this policy more successfully put into practice than in Spain. The two monarchs who were on the throne in Spain during most of the sixteenth century believed that one of their first duties was to promote the interests of the Catholic faith by every possible means.

Emperor Charles V, who presided over the Diet at Worms (1521), was King Charles I of Spain, but the fifth Charles to be Holy Roman Emperor. His father was archduke of Austria and his mother the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella. So he inherited from one side of the house the Austrian dominions of the Hapsburg family, including the Netherlands and Belgium. Through his mother he received Spain and her colonial possessions. Perhaps no other monarch since the days of Trajan ruled over so much territory in Europe.

Charles could not give the attention to crushing the Lutheran movement in Germany that he otherwise might have given because he was at war with King Francis I, of France, much of the time. Francis also was a Catholic, but he bitterly fought with Charles to control affairs in Italy. Charles finally became tired of the responsibilities of his position and in 1555 gave up his many titles and retired to a monastery. There is a story that his favorite amusement after he retired was tinkering with clocks, and that he once remarked on the foolishness of trying to make men think alike when he could not even get two clocks to run together.

Philip II (1556-1598) was even more thoroughly devoted to the Catholic Church than his father. He was so intensely sincere

and earnest that he was said seldom to have smiled. The Hapsburg territory and the title of Holy Roman Emperor went to another member of the family, but Philip did have Spain, the Netherlands, Burgundy, Naples, and Sicily, besides the enormous Spanish colonies that were still growing. The Philippine Islands, which were named after him, were seized by an expedition which crossed the Pacific from Mexico in the same year that St. Augustine



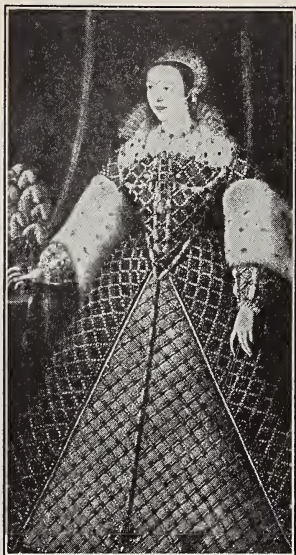
ERASMUS TEACHING CHARLES V

Does the boy seem to be enjoying himself? He could hardly have had a better teacher. Does this picture help you to realize that kings and emperors were once boys?

in Florida was founded (1565). He assisted the Pope and the Venetians in providing the fleet which defeated the Turks in the battle of Lepanto (1571) and put a stop to their conquests on the sea.

The Dutch deserve a better fate than to have their history told merely as a sidelight on that of Spain, but we can hardly help doing so. They very largely accepted Calvin's brand of Protestantism, though Philip did his worst to knock such notions out of them. They had suffered somewhat under Charles V, but felt less kindly toward Philip, whom they thought of simply as a

Spaniard and a foreigner. Philip sent troops under the Duke of Alba to crush the Dutch into submission. His methods were so heartless and brutal that even the Catholics in the Netherlands



CATHERINE DE' MEDICI

The Queen of France who during much of the last half of the sixteenth century really ruled the country. Costumes like hers were favored by society in her day.

as they were called, were numerous enterprising people of the middle class and some prominent in other ways, such as Admiral Coligny (co lēn'yē.)

objected to them. The Dutch were ably led by William the Silent, Prince of Orange. They looked upon him much as Americans look upon George Washington as a leader in their struggle for independence.¹ He was murdered in 1584, but by that time the Dutch people had virtually made themselves safe from Spanish conquest. Spain did, however, keep Belgium.

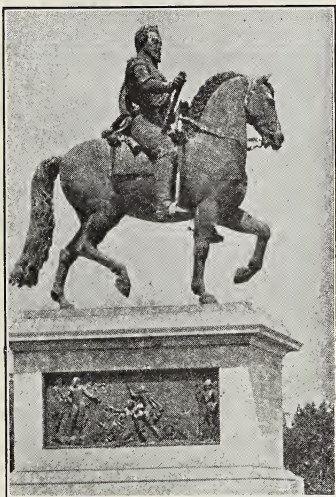
Do you know of any other cases of voluntary retirement like that of Charles V? Do you suppose he really felt relieved when he no longer was responsible for the way things were handled?

185. France during the Reformation Period. — Since Calvin was a Frenchman, there was more chance for his views to gain some acceptance among the French people than for Lutheranism. At that, it is unlikely that more than one-tenth of the people ever were Protestants. Among these Huguenots,

¹ One of the heroic stories of the resistance of the Dutch people is connected with the siege of the city of Leyden (lī'den). Spanish troops had besieged the city so closely that the people were reduced almost to starvation and were eating rats and cats to keep alive. William and his army tried to break through the Spanish forces and rescue the city. When this seemed impossible, William decided to cut the dikes that kept out the water of the sea and let them flood the land occupied by the Spanish troops. So Leyden was saved, though at an enormous cost. In honor of the event the citizens of Leyden were offered their choice between exemption from taxes and the building of a university. To their credit they chose the university.

For a considerable time the real ruler of France was not the man who happened to be on the throne, but the queen mother Catherine de' Medici. She tried for a while to play off the Huguenots against the Catholics and keep them both under her control, though it was her intention to get rid of the Huguenots. Finally she helped to plan one of the most horrible crimes ever committed. The wedding of a Huguenot prince, Henry of Navarre, was to take place in Paris. Huguenots were much interested in the ceremony and came into Paris in large numbers. On the night of August 24, 1572 (St. Bartholomew's Day), armed men attacked Huguenots wherever they met them and murdered them without mercy. Outside of Paris, too, the same sort of thing occurred. No one knows just how many thousands were put to death, but enough so that the Huguenot influence in France was terribly shaken.

In 1589, however, this same Henry of Navarre became king of France under the title of Henry IV. Since Paris had few Protestants, Henry knew that the city would not accept a Protestant king peacefully. "That fair city," he said, "is well worth a mass." So he changed over to the Catholic Church and thus pacified Paris. Henry IV was the greatest statesman that France had as king for many a year. Roads, canals, and other improvements were constructed; farming and commerce were encouraged. During his reign De Monts (demōn') and the great Samuel de Champlain (shamplain') came to North America and started a New France. Henry kept religious peace in France by issuing the Edict of Nantes (nänt) (1598), by which Huguenots were allowed



Ewing Galloway

A STATUE OF HENRY IV

The artist has done well by the horse, anyhow. The statue is on Pont Neuf, in Paris.

freedom of worship in most parts of France except Paris. But Henry had his enemies and was finally murdered.

The next king of France was Louis XIII (1610-1643). He himself was not good for much; but after a while Cardinal Richelieu (rēsh-lyû') became his chief minister, and under him France rose to be the leading power on the continent of Europe.

Is a king justified in changing from one religious body to another to bring peace to his country? Recall the story of the attempt of Huguenots to settle in Florida and what happened to them.

186. England Breaks Away from the Pope.— You remember how Henry Tudor, or Henry VII, became king of England (1485-1509) and established a government which was both strict and thrifty. The second of the Tudor kings, Henry VIII (1509-1547), was much more of a spender. Henry wrote a pamphlet vigorously defending the Catholic Church against Luther. The Pope was so pleased with this that he gave Henry the title of "Defender of the Faith." English kings still include that as a part of their official title, though they ceased long ago to defend the Catholic faith. Indeed, Henry VIII himself was the first English monarch to break away from the Pope.

Trouble started between Henry and the Pope when the Pope refused to set aside his marriage to his first wife, Princess Catherine of Aragon. The only child of this union who lived to grow up was a daughter, Mary, and Henry was desirous of having a male heir. He had become interested in Anne Boleyn (bōōl'in), a young lady of his court whom he wished to make his queen.

There was, however, no sufficient reason under church laws for the annulment of Henry's marriage, so he took things into his own hands and had his marriage to Catherine set aside by English officials. Then he caused Parliament to pass the Act of Supremacy (1534), which declared that Henry was the "only supreme head on earth of the Church of England." Henry did not change the church organization much, and did not call himself a Protestant. He did, however, have the Bible translated into English and used in church services, and did away with the monasteries, whose wealth he appropriated. Anne Boleyn bore Henry a daughter, Elizabeth, but he soon tired of Anne and had her executed. His third wife, Jane Seymour, bore him Edward VI. In all Henry had six wives.

Henry VIII was followed by his son, Edward VI (1547–1553), whose mother was Jane Seymour, Henry's third wife. Edward was only a boy, and his government was largely carried on by men who tried to make England distinctly Protestant. The country as a whole was not yet ready for that step, however.

When Edward's short reign came to an end, he was followed by Mary, the daughter of Henry's first wife. Her reign also was short (1553–1558). She was a Catholic because that was the religion of her mother, and she was as sincerely determined as the king of Spain himself to root out Protestantism. Partly to get Spanish help she married the prince who became King Philip II. She loved him, but he showed no signs of caring for her. Her reign was an unhappy one. She persecuted so many prominent English Protestants that Protestants called her "Bloody Mary," and people turned away from her. In a war with France she lost the town of Calais (calā'), the last territory which England held in France. "If you open my heart," she exclaimed sadly, "you will find two words written there — 'Philip' and 'Calais.'"



HENRY VIII

This is a copy of the famous portrait by the artist Holbein.

If monarchs could so easily swing their country back and forth in matters of religious policy, would you conclude that the mass of the people had little deep religious feeling or that they were afraid of their monarchs? Do you see any likeness or contrast between Henry VIII's breaking away from the Pope and the acceptance of Catholicism by Henry IV of France?

187. Elizabeth's Religious Policy. — Next came to the throne Elizabeth, the daughter of Anne Boleyn — "Good Queen Bess" her admirers have called her. Her long reign (1558–1603) was a most notable one in the history of England. Because of the circumstances of her mother's marriage to Henry VIII, the Pope

refused to recognize her as queen of England. She was therefore obliged to turn for support to the Protestants. A second Act of Supremacy was passed (1559), which is still in force and which makes the English ruler the head in name of the Church of England. The so-called "Thirty-nine Articles" were adopted as the official creed of that church.

There were some persecutions of Catholics under Elizabeth, but they were so handled that no such unfavorable feeling was aroused as by Mary's persecutions of Protestants. As time went on and England became involved in trouble with Spain, English people became so patriotic that even the leading Catholics of the country were loyal to Elizabeth as queen.

Elizabeth was greatly embarrassed by the presence in England of her cousin Mary Stuart — Mary Queen of Scots. Mary also was descended from Henry VII, Elizabeth's grandfather, and had a good title to the throne of England if Elizabeth's claim should be set aside. Mary's first husband was King Francis II, of France; but he died after two years. Her second husband, Lord Darnley, was murdered; and three months later she married a man whom many suspected to be the murderer of Darnley. Scottish leaders who were Presbyterians disliked Mary, who was a Catholic, and obliged her to give up the throne in favor of her young son James. Mary took refuge in England, where Elizabeth kept her virtually a prisoner for nineteen years. Plots were made to get rid of Elizabeth and put Mary on the throne. Elizabeth, finally convinced that she was not safe so long as Mary lived, had Mary put to death (1587).

Elizabeth was a remarkable woman in many ways. Philip II wanted to marry her after Queen Mary died, but Elizabeth would not have him. She said that she was married to her country. Though sometimes harsh and ill-mannered — she could swear as well as any of the men of her court — she made Englishmen feel that she really wanted to do what was best for the nation. Her reign is in some respects the Golden Age of English literature. It was in part the time of Spenser, Shakespeare, and Bacon.

Why could not Elizabeth easily do anything else than support some form of Protestantism? It has been said that perhaps two-thirds of all the English people were Catholic when Elizabeth came to the throne.

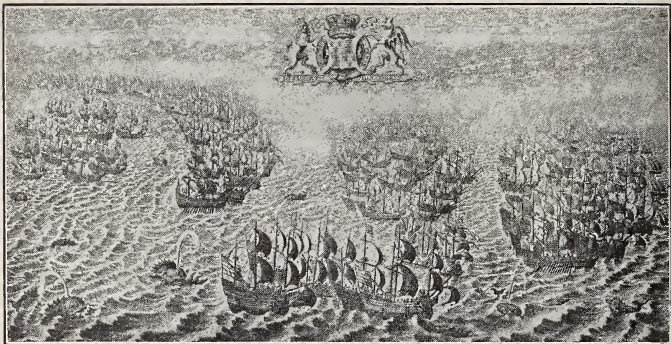
Why, then, do you suppose that by the end of her reign there was no chance of England's becoming a Catholic country? Would Elizabeth have weakened her standing with the English people if she had married one of her many suitors?

188. England's Rivalry with Spain. — The unfriendliness between England and Spain, the chief defender of the Catholic Church, soon became keen. Part of this unfriendliness grew out of the activities of English seamen. Until the days of Queen Elizabeth Englishmen bothered very little with the New World, in spite of Cabot's discovery. Now, however, came to the front such reckless, hardy seamen as John Hawkins and Francis Drake. Hawkins was a slave trader — one who could hold religious services on ships carrying men to be sold as slaves. Hawkins and Drake and others like them entered the harbors of Spanish colonies without any permission from anybody, plundered Spanish merchant vessels, and made themselves general nuisances to the Spaniards. Drake undertook an expedition around the world which covered even more miles than Magellan's. Going through Magellan's Strait, he sailed north along the western coast of the two continents as far as California. Then he turned west across the Pacific and came back to England after a thrilling three years' tour (1577-1580).

At the same time the revolt of the Dutch against Spanish cruelty was going on. Elizabeth secretly gave help to the Dutch and allowed Englishmen to go over and help them fight. Finally Philip II determined to punish England. He got together a fleet which the Spaniards called the "Invincible Armada." Under the lead of Lord Howard, Drake, and Hawkins, the English assembled the best fleet they could by way of defense. As the Spanish fleet came through the English Channel, it was attacked by the English fleet. Then a tremendous storm assailed the Spanish vessels, and in desperation they tried to get back home by going north around Scotland. The battle, the storm, and the other dangers of the journey so wrecked the Spanish fleet that only about one-third of the ships ever reached Spain.

The year 1588, in which the Armada met such a terrible disaster, is one of the turning points in world history. Spain never again could threaten England effectively. Englishmen could plan for

commerce and colonies in the New World without caring what Spain might do about it. Protestantism in Holland and England was now safe. England had won the title of "Mistress of the Sea,"



THE DEFEAT OF THE ARMADA

An artist of years ago drew this picture showing the steady sweep of the crescent of Spanish ships through the English Channel, only to meet disaster at the hands of the English fleet and the storms.

of which she was proud to boast in all the years that followed. Spain from this time was on the down-grade.

In 1587 Drake "singed the King of Spain's beard," as he said, by destroying goods and ships in the harbor of Cadiz. Why would he do this when there was no open war between the two countries? Would it be tolerated today? It has been said that the defeat of the Armada was one of the first great events in the history of the United States. How could that be?

189. The Thirty Years' War. — The last and perhaps the most disastrous of all wars fought in the name of religion broke out in central Europe in 1618 and lasted for thirty years. It has four fairly definite phases.

The first we may call the *Bohemian* phase (1618–1625). Ever since the time of John Huss, there had been a strong Protestant spirit in Bohemia, and Catholic and Protestant parties struggled for the upper hand. The Protestants were poorly led, and in a few years the Catholics were in entire control of Bohemia.

Then came the *Danish* period (1625–1629). Alarmed at the



ELIZABETH KNIGHTING DRAKE ON BOARD THE GOLDEN HIND.

setback to Protestantism in Bohemia, Christian II, King of Denmark, and some Protestant princes in Germany started fighting again. The Catholic generals, Tilly and Wallenstein (val'leustine), were abler than anyone the Protestants could produce, and shortly the Danish king had to agree to very unfavorable terms of peace.



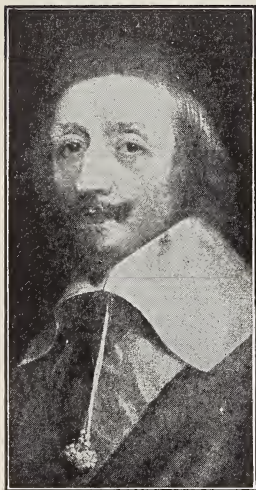
GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS BEFORE THE BATTLE OF LÜTZEN

The artist who painted this picture shows the Swedish king in the act of prayer before the battle. The king was deeply sincere in his religion, and acts like this were not staged for effect.

Third came the *Swedish* period (1629–1635). King Gustavus Adolphus, fearing that German Protestantism was in danger of being destroyed, came down into Germany in the spirit of a crusader. Gustavus Adolphus was one of the few fine characters in this terrible war. He organized a regular commissary department to feed his soldiers so that the people of Germany need not be robbed and plundered for the support of his army. Protestants called him the “Lion of the North.” On the battlefield of Lützen (1632), he won his last victory but lost his own life. Then the Swedes without their great leader were ready to quit.

By this time, however, another country was ready to mix actively into the struggle. This was France. And so the last period of the war is known as the *French*, or *Swedish-French* period (1635–1648). From now on religion really had little to do with the

struggle. The outstanding character in it was Cardinal Richelieu, who was the real ruler of France rather than the king. Though himself a cardinal in the Catholic Church, his chief interest was to win for France the leadership of the continental countries of Europe and to check the power of Austria. The Bourbons of France had no love for the Hapsburgs. So Richelieu induced the



CARDINAL RICHELIEU

The statesman who raised France to leadership in Europe in the first half of the seventeenth century.

Swedes to stay in the war, promising them territory on the south side of the Baltic Sea, and sent French armies into Germany to fight against the Austrians. The combined forces of France, Sweden, and the German Protestant princes were finally victorious. Perhaps it would be more nearly correct to say that everybody was tired and willing to accept a reasonable peace.

Do you think a war today could last thirty years? If Germany had been a united nation in the seventeenth century, would there have been a Thirty Years' War? Do armies today undertake to live on the country where their campaigns are carried on?

190. What the Peace of Westphalia Meant.—The peace treaty which ended this terrible Thirty Years' War is usually called the *Peace of Westphalia*, because it was made in the kingdom of

that name (1648). It is one of the landmarks in history. There have been wars enough since then, and in some of them religious feeling had a part; but religion was never again the chief cause of conflict. (See the time-graph on page 372.)

The Peace of Westphalia put Calvinists on the same footing as Lutherans in Germany. A German prince now had three choices in the matter of religion—he could be a Lutheran, a Calvinist, or a Catholic. But it was still understood that the religion of the prince must be the religion of his people. Those who were not

satisfied with the prince's choice of religion were allowed to emigrate. A considerable number of Germans did so, and later some of them came over and settled in the English colonies of North America.

Both Switzerland and Holland were recognized as fully independent. They had really been so for some time anyway. France received the province of Alsace (äl säss'), which brought her up to the River Rhine. Sweden received territory in Germany which she held until into the eighteenth century. The German duchy of Brandenburg also gained in prominence and area.

The war set Germany back at least a hundred years, and some parts of it perhaps two hundred. The population of the country was cut down more than one-half during the thirty years. Fields and farms were uncultivated. Whole cities were destroyed. The country was still split up into some four hundred dominions of all sizes. The war also had a bad effect morally. Any war is likely to make both nation and people hard and cruel and to bring out the most hateful qualities in their makeup.

One of the few good things that came out of this war was an earnest effort to set down the duties of nations toward one another. In 1625 a Dutchman who wrote under the name of Hugo Gro'tius published a book, *De Jure Belli ac Pacis* — "On the Law of War and Peace." Gustavus Adolphus was so pleased with it that he carried around a copy with him. Few were ready to accept all its views, but here was the real beginning of modern international law, which still has a long way to go.

Do you suppose the making of the Peace of Westphalia was an easy task? Some take the date of this treaty as the best dividing line between medieval and modern history. How does it appeal to you in that regard as compared with such dates as 1453 or 1492, for example? If nations are willing to kill off one another because they disagree about some matter, can we expect them to bother much about rules of right and wrong?

191. Lasting Changes Caused by the Protestant Revolt. — Since the signing of the Peace of Westphalia there have been few changes in the religious loyalties of the nations of western Europe. Individual Christians have changed from one religious body to another, and still do so; but as nations they seem pretty well fixed. France, Spain, and Italy, as well as Hungary, Austria, and Poland,

were almost unanimously Catholic. England, Scotland, Holland, and the Scandinavian countries were Protestant to stay. Germany was divided, its northern sections largely Protestant, its southern districts chiefly Catholic. Switzerland, also, was part Catholic and part Protestant. As some of these countries carried their flag and their trade into the New World, their prevailing religion went along with them. So in South America almost everybody became Catholic; in North America, Protestant or Catholic, depending on where the settlers came from. (For European boundaries at the middle of the seventeenth century, see the map on page 345.)

In the long run religious toleration and religious freedom have advanced. Religious bitterness has not entirely disappeared even yet; but in many countries, even where one religious denomination is much more numerous than any other, all are permitted to worship as their conscience tells them. The practice of allowing individuals to read and interpret the Bible also encouraged education and learning. Jesuit schools continued, and schools were established under Protestant direction.

If many people were to read the Bible, they must have it in up-to-date versions in their own language. So numerous translations were undertaken, such as that by Martin Luther into the German language (§ 179). A translation of the New Testament into English was published at Rheims, in France, in 1582, under the direction of English Catholics who found it more comfortable in France at that time than in England. The Old Testament was finished and published at Douay (doo ā') in 1610. The combination of the two, which is often referred to as the *Douay Bible*, is, in a revised form, that used today in the English language by Roman Catholics. After King James I came to the throne in England (1603), he permitted a translation to be made under the auspices of scholars who compared earlier translations into English with the original Hebrew and Greek. This work was completed in 1611, and under the name of the *King James Version* was for many years the only English translation used by Protestants. (Time-graph, page 372.)

If you can secure copies of the Douay Bible, the King James Version, and the Revised Version now used in many Protestant churches, take

some well-known passage and compare the wording of it in all three of those versions. Does it seem to you that there is any material difference among them? Was any one religious denomination ever distinctly dominant in your community? If so, why?

IDEAS TO STAY WITH US

Toward the later part of the Middle Ages the great Church organization headed by the Pope showed some signs of weakness. In a few cases critics of the Church enjoyed for a while positions of leadership, as did Wyclif, Huss, and Savonarola.

The first extensive separation from the Catholic Church came in the early sixteenth century under Martin Luther's leadership in Germany. Civil war ensued, which ended with an agreement that princes might choose whether they would be Catholics or Lutherans and their people must accept for themselves the decisions of the princes.

Other Protestant leaders besides Luther included Zwingli, in Zurich, and John Calvin, in Geneva. Calvin's ideas were extensively taken up in Scotland and some other places.

The Catholic organization then undertook a thorough reform with the purpose of setting up high standards of conduct for its chief officials and regaining the influence which it had begun to lose. The activities of the Jesuit order added much to its strength.

In many respects the teachings of Catholics and Protestants are the same. They differ particularly on the authority of the Pope and the doctrine of transubstantiation. The Protestant idea that everyone may interpret the Bible for himself led to the growth of distinct denominations.

The kings of Spain in the sixteenth century considered themselves especially responsible for supporting the authority of the Catholic Church. Emperor Charles V voluntarily retired from his offices. Under King Philip II there was bitter resistance when he tried to destroy Protestantism in the Netherlands.

Protestants, called Huguenots, were in the minority in France, but included some able and influential people. King Henry IV, who changed from Huguenot to Catholic, gave France excellent government.

England's separation from the Catholic Church started when Henry VIII had himself put in place of the Pope as the head of the Church in England. After Queen Mary tried to restore the country to the Catholic Church, under Elizabeth the Church of England, separate from the Pope, was re-established.

England's rise to prominence under Elizabeth's rule brought on a conflict with Spain in which the Spanish were defeated and their country started on a rapid decline.

On the continent of Europe occurred the bitter Thirty Years' War. The Austrian ruler was the chief supporter of the Catholic cause; and Bohemians, Danish, and then Swedes, under Gustavus Adolphus, were the chief advocates of Protestantism. Richelieu, the prime minister of France, though himself a Catholic, took his country into the war so as to reduce the influence of Austria and raise France to a place of leadership. The Peace of Westphalia (1648) gave Calvinists the same rights as Lutherans and Catholics in Germany, and recognized the independence of the Netherlands and Switzerland. The war was fearfully disastrous for Germany.

The Thirty Years' War was the last to be carried on in the name of religion. At its close, the countries of Europe were lined up about as they are today with reference to their standing as Protestant or Catholic.

As an outgrowth of the emphasis on individual reading of the Scriptures, several translations of the Bible into the language of the people took place. Some of these have ever since been used by the religious bodies responsible for making them.

NAMES AND TERMS WE SHOULD UNDERSTAND

- | | | |
|------------------------|---------------------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. Wyclif | 19. Ignatius Loyola | 35. John Hawkins |
| 2. Huss | 20. Francis Xavier | 36. Francis Drake |
| 3. Savonarola | 21. Charles V | 37. The Armada |
| 4. Luther | 22. Philip II | 38. Spenser |
| 5. Indulgences | 23. William the Silent | 39. Shakespeare |
| 6. Tetzal | 24. Huguenots | 40. Bacon (Francis) |
| 7. Ninety-five Theses | 25. Massacre of St. Bartholomew's Day | 41. Thirty Years' War |
| 8. Diet at Worms | | 42. Gustavus Adolphus |
| 9. Augsburg Confession | 26. Catherine de' Medici | 43. Cardinal Richelieu |
| 10. Protestants | | 44. Peace of Westphalia |
| 11. Peace of Augsburg | 27. Henry of Navarre | 45. Grotius |
| 12. Zwingli | 28. Edict of Nantes | 46. Toleration |
| 13. Calvin | 29. Henry VIII | 47. Religious freedom |
| 14. Knox | 30. Act of Supremacy | 48. Douay Bible |
| 15. Council of Trent | 31. Edward VI | 49. King James Version |
| 16. Index | 32. Mary Tudor | |
| 17. Inquisition | 33. Elizabeth | |
| 18. Society of Jesus | 34. Mary Stuart | |

DATES WORTH REMEMBERING

1517	Luther's Ninety-five Theses	1598	Edict of Nantes
1521	Diet at Worms	1610	Douay Bible completed
1534	First Act of Supremacy in England	1611	King James Version of the Bible
1545-1563	Council of Trent	1618-1648	Thirty Years' War
1555	Peace of Augsburg	1648	Peace of Westphalia
1588	Defeat of Spanish Armada		

INTERESTING SUBJECTS YOU MAY LIKE TO KNOW ABOUT

The Story of John Wyclif
 The Story of John Huss
 Savonarola in Florence
 The Personality and Career of Martin Luther
 Zwingli at Zurich
 John Calvin in Geneva
 The Activities of the Council of Trent
 Ignatius Loyola and the Jesuits
 Francis Xavier
 William the Silent and the Revolt of the Dutch against Spain
 The Struggle between Huguenots and Catholics in France
 Was Elizabeth's Treatment of Mary Queen of Scots Justifiable?
 John Knox and the Reformation in Scotland
 Queen Elizabeth and the Leading Men of Her Time
 Henry of Navarre (Henry IV)
 The Story of the Armada
 Gustavus Adolphus
 Cardinal Richelieu
 Grotius and His Work on International Law
 Translations of the Bible into English

INTERESTING PROJECTS YOU MAY LIKE TO UNDERTAKE

1. Draw a map of western Europe which will show the religious division of the continent after 1648. On it locate the places mentioned in this unit.
2. Dramatize one or more of the following: Huss at the Council of Constance; Luther at the Diet of Worms; the return of Drake to Elizabeth's court.
3. Arrange a dialogue on one or more of the following: between a supporter of Luther and a supporter of Calvin; between a Protestant and a Catholic about 1540; between two or three Englishmen about 1588.
4. Draw a diagram showing the relationship of the Tudor monarchs to one another and to the royal family of Scotland.
5. Draw cartoons or sketches illustrating something of the time of Queen Elizabeth.
6. Write editorials for an imaginary newspaper at different times during the period covered by this unit.

7. Write some pages from an imaginary diary of Luther, Calvin, or Loyola.
8. For purposes of review take the learning threads or lines of development in the Chart of Trends in World Progress, suggested in Unit II, and follow them through continuously from the beginning of history until the time we have reached in our study.
9. Have each pupil hand in a list of the ten individuals in the study of history up to this point who appear to him to have had the greatest influence on the progress of mankind. Tabulate these lists. Conduct an open forum for a discussion of the names listed. Each pupil should be prepared to give a good summary of the achievements of the ten whom he has chosen and to defend them against the achievements of persons preferred by other pupils.
10. In a similar way make selections of the ten most important events up to the time our study has now reached.
11. Arrange a "Who Am I?" exercise on important characters mentioned in this unit.

PLACES FOR FURTHER READING

Adams, *Civilization during the Middle Ages*, XVI, XVII

Adams, *Growth of the French Nation*

Cheyney, *Short History of England*, XII

Haaren and Poland, *Famous Men of Modern Times*

Hayes, *Political and Cultural History of Modern Europe*, Vol. I, Chs. IV, V

Munro, *History of the Middle Ages*, XVI

Robinson, *Readings in European History*

Tuell and Hatch, *Selected Readings in English History*

Benians, *From Renaissance to Revolution*

Creighton, *The Age of Elizabeth*

Froude, *English Seamen of the 16th Century*

Gardiner, *The Thirty Years' War*

Griffis, *Brave Little Holland*

Hodge, *Saints and Heroes*

Barnes, *Drake and His Yeomen*

Begbie, *Rising Dawn*

Bennett, *Master Skylark*

Benson, *Come Rack! Come Rope!*

Clemens, *The Prince and the Pauper*

Crawford, *In the Palace of the King*

Daniel, *In the Favor of the King*

Davis, *The Friar of Wittenberg*

Dumas, *The Three Musketeers*

Henty, *By Pike and Dyke*

Henty, *The Lion of the North*

Henty, *Under Drake's Flag*

Kingsley, *Westward Ho!*

Knowles, *Henry of Navarre*

McGiffert, *Martin Luther, the Man and His Work*

Smith, *The Age of the Reformation*

Stevens, *Gustavus Adolphus*

Thompson, *St. Ignatius Loyola*

Walker, *The Reformation*

Major, *Dorothy Vernon of Haddon Hall and When Knighthood Was in Flower*

Mann, *Young Henry of Navarre*

Martin, *A Warwickshire Lad*

Runkle, *The Helmet of Navarre*

Scott, *Kenilworth*

Scott, *The Abbot*

Seaman, *Jacqueline of the Carrier Pigeons*

Tappan, *In the Days of Queen Elizabeth*

Weyman, *A Gentleman of France*

Weyman, *Under the Red Robe*

SOME THOUGHTS BY WAY OF TRANSITION

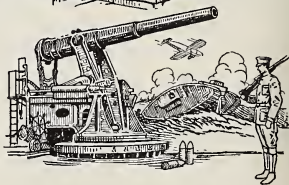
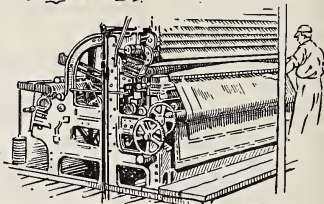
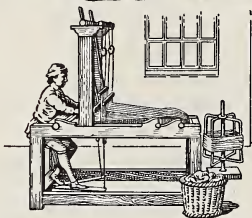
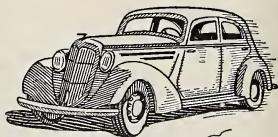
"There are times in the history of the world when facts almost stand still. . . . Then again there are periods when new facts come pell-mell upon the world." — BEARD

192. From Medieval to Modern History. — Some people would say that we have been studying modern history for some time already. Remember that wherever we make the division point there is no clear-cut break — at 1492, 1603, 1648, or any other date. The whole story of world history is continuous, whether in the development of democracy, education, religion, industry, or any other field of human interest.

Yet the life of men in the last three centuries has changed tremendously from that of people of earlier days. Such life as was symbolized by feudal lords and castles now survives only as a relic of a bygone time. Religion still influences people's personal lives, but they take it in a different way, and nations no longer fight one another over it. People live much faster and more crowded lives. We live in a *world* now, and not merely a country or even a continent. Europe has extended its trade and civilization to parts of the Old World and the New which once it knew, if at all, only by hearsay and rumor.

Reference to the time-chart on page 9 will make clear to you the crowded nature of the last three centuries from our viewpoint of time. The artist could not have drawn typical scenes or persons for the eight units covering this period and still have kept within the necessary time limits. Whether a thousand years from now these three centuries will seem so crowded and important, you and I can only guess. What is your idea about it?

If you have any preference as to the best dividing line between medieval and modern history, where would you draw it, and why? Is it proper to spend as much time on the last 300 years or so as on all the centuries before them? Do you suppose there will be another age in which what we call modern life will seem out of date and the machines which are so important to us will seem antiques?



THREE HUNDRED YEARS OF PROGRESS

The spread of learning and the advance of science have given us a new and much smaller world for which the coach of the 1640's would never do. Just as the colonial loom gave way to batteries of spindles, and ancient turrets bowed to the skyscraper, so the huge liner may yet yield its glories to mighty ships of the air, and still other changes come to mark civilization's onward sweep.

193. Lines of Development in Modern History. — If, back in 1600, some crystal-gazer or intelligent prophet could have looked forward to the present, he might have foretold several lines of development, by no means separated from one another, but still definite. "I foresee," he might have said :

"1. *A strong spirit of national patriotism develops.* Some of the time this centers around great kings or generals ; but it often displays itself in the ambition, selfishness, or enterprise of a whole nation. This spirit of nationalism brings about the union of such countries as Germany and Italy, and holds the United States together.

"2. *Democratic ideas in government gain favor.* For some time the power of monarchs remains strong in most countries. England is the first to put her kings in their place. The idea that the people rather than the kings should rule gains very slowly in many countries. But for three centuries democratic ideas make much headway in many parts of the world.

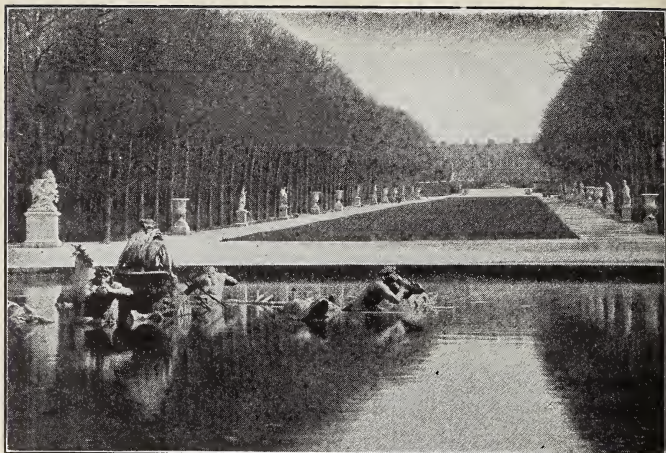
"3. *European trade and civilization profoundly affect the whole world.* They produce the nations of the New World. Ancient civilizations such as those of China, Japan, and India feel the effects of this movement, though they often do not like it.

"4. *There is a tremendous widening of human knowledge.* We discover many things about our own world and other worlds. We command the forces of the streams, of steam, and of electricity and make them do things for us that once men could not have dreamed.

"5. *Increased scientific knowledge and great inventions completely transform industry and society.* In no other period of similar length in the history of the world have such tremendous changes taken place though they have not always made human life better.

"6. *All these influences working together make all nations inter-dependent.* The things we need in our industries we get from all parts of the world, and we sell our own products in every port and under every flag. No man and no nation can live a comfortable life without making use of what other men and nations are doing."

Make out a list in which you mention at least one instance or illustration of the working today of these six trends or developments. Would you have considered all these trends good 300 years ago?



A SCENE AT VERSAILLES

Publishers' Photo

In this picture one looks toward the palace through one of the attractive vistas which beautify the grounds.

X. MONARCHS AND MONARCHIES OF THE SEVENTEENTH AND EIGHTEENTH CENTURIES

"I govern according to the common weal but not according to the common will." — JAMES I

"The royal throne is not the throne of man but of God Himself."

— BOSSUET

The history of Europe in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries can largely be traced by relating the careers of monarchs. The spirit of nationalism was strong enough, but only in England did the people move toward democracy. Sometimes a foresighted king helped to lift his country to a higher plane of living. At other times a selfish or ambitious monarch took his country into expensive wars or kept his people burdened with unjustifiable taxes. But through it all the map of Europe steadily became somewhat more like that of today.

Pointers for Our Study:

What ideals of government were preached and practiced by monarchs of this period?

What were the chief events in those countries which had previously taken definite form — England, France, and Spain?

Did any new powers rise to places of importance in European affairs?

Were there any evidences of progress in culture, learning, or social life?

In what respects was Europe still in need of reform and improvement in the latter part of the eighteenth century?

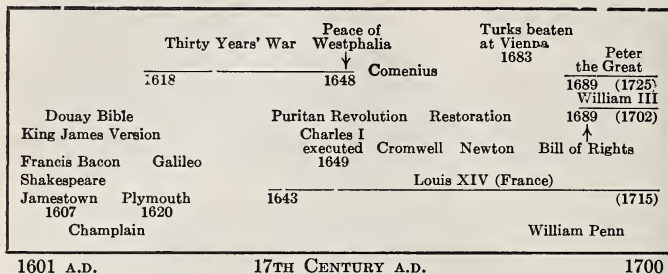
194. Theories and Practices of the Monarchs of This Period. — Almost any king or prince in Europe about the year 1600 would have told you that *he* was the *government* of his country, that he had been put upon the throne by the will of God Himself. Did not Paul say in the Scriptures, "The powers that be are ordained of God"? Kings, then, ruled by "divine right," and nobody had the privilege of questioning what a monarch might do.

This notion did not then seem particularly out of place. The mass of the people were still comparatively ignorant. A country had to have a leader. If not to their king, where would people look for leadership? A king was expected to stand up for the rights of his country, but it was not always easy to see just how far, in doing that, a king was looking out for his own selfish interests.

A doctrine very popular with the typical monarch of the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries was set forth by Machiavelli (mä kya vël'i), an Italian writer and diplomat, in a book on government called *The Prince* (published in 1532). A monarch, according to his idea, was not bound by any laws of morality or right. In protecting himself or advancing the interests of his country he might lie, kill, or use any kind of deceit or trickery. Popes protested against this doctrine, but many monarchs did not hesitate to practice it anyhow.

There were some good rulers, of course. Henry IV of France and Elizabeth of England surely tried to do well by their countries; even some who did unwise things would not deliberately have harmed their people. But altogether too often rulers were selfish, weak, or foolish, and had no higher ambition than to live in luxury and tyrannize over a helpless people.

What do you suppose Paul really meant by saying, "The powers that be are ordained of God"? Why do people in some countries today put up with dictators? Has the United States ever had anything of the kind?



Refer to this time-graph and the one on page 390 frequently in studying this unit.

195. Conditions in England as the Stuart Period Opened. —

When Queen Elizabeth was approaching the end of her reign — and her latter years were rather lonely and unpleasant ones — she was asked who should be her successor. “Who should it be,” she replied, “but our cousin of Scotland?” So it was that when Elizabeth passed on in 1603, James VI, King of Scotland and son of Mary Stuart, became King James I of England. He moved over to London, but kept at the same time his place as King of Scotland. The two countries were still separate, however, and remained so for a little over a century.

James I did not hesitate to proclaim the doctrine of the divine right of kings in its baldest form. If Parliament would not agree with him, so much the worse for Parliament. By his own proclamation he would set aside laws which did not suit him. “It is atheism and blasphemy to dispute what God can do,” he said, “so it is presumption and contempt in a subject to dispute what a king can do.”

The religious situation also threatened trouble. England still had a good many Catholics. Among the Protestants a growing group, called Puritans, wished to “purify” the Church of England of certain customs which they thought were too much like those of the Roman Catholic Church. They did not want the ministers to wear robes or to use the sign of the cross or to keep crucifixes and pictures of the saints in the churches.

Puritans themselves disagreed. Many were Presbyterians and

wanted to set up in England the Presbyterian church organization which prevailed in Scotland. Others, known as Independents or Separatists, thought each church congregation should be free to establish its own form of worship. But Puritans of all kinds believed that the people could overthrow rulers who abused their authority and that if rulers were ordained by God, it was to protect the liberties of the people.

James V, the grandfather of James VI, appears in *The Lady of the Lake*. What kind of person did Scott represent him to be?

196. How England Fared under James I. — Maybe if James I had looked a little more like a king, people would have been more willing to take him at his own valuation. But he neither looked nor acted like one. He usually dressed in queer green clothes. He delighted in talking at length on all sorts of subjects. He really was well educated for his time, but he showed so little judgment in the use of his learning that Henry IV of France called him "the wisest fool in Christendom."

Soon after James became king, a group of Puritans met him in a conference at Hampton Court (1604) in the hope of inducing him to adopt some of their religious ideas. To their great disappointment he told them that Puritanism agrees with monarchy as well as God with the devil. If Puritans would not "conform," he would "harry them out of the land or else do worse." Just one good thing came out of the Hampton Court Conference — the appointment of a committee to arrange for a new translation of the Bible into English — the "King James version" (§ 191).

James had no easy time in governing England. He was extravagant and allowed incompetent personal friends to influence his policies. When Parliament did meet, it was not inclined to give money to the king unless he gave them privileges in return. So James got along without Parliament as much as possible, getting the money he needed in any way he could.¹

¹ People were a little more considerate of James than they might otherwise have been because of the affair known as the *Gunpowder Plot*. Guy Fawkes and some others succeeded in storing gunpowder under the Parliament buildings with the idea of blowing up the two houses of Parliament at a time when the king was present. The plot was discovered, and several connected with it were put to death. Even yet on Guy Fawkes Day (November 5) a procession with lanterns makes an inspection of the cellars of the Parliament building, supposedly to see whether anybody is trying to blow up the place.

It was during the reign of this same king that England got a permanent foothold in the New World. Surely you know about Jamestown, settled in 1607 and named after the king; and about the group who left England for Holland to find freedom of worship, and then, coming to the New World, became the founders of the Pilgrim colony at Plymouth (1620). Ideas of English freedom just then found a more comfortable climate in the New World than at home. Colonies of Scotch and English people were also settled in the northern part of Ireland. These were the beginnings of the people referred to as Scotch-Irish, many of whom later came to the English colonies in America. Their settlement was one reason why North Ireland became different in religion and sentiment from the rest of the island.

Why do you suppose James put up with Presbyterianism in Scotland and then refused to consider it in England? Might an English-born king have advocated the divine right of kings with more success than James I?

197. Charles I and His "Personal Government." — Charles I (1625–1649), who came to the throne at the death of his father, was rather good-looking and much more attractive personally than James. But he was just as stubborn in his notion that a king might rule as he pleased. He promptly found himself in great need of money. When Parliament was unwilling to grant it, Charles collected taxes unauthorized by law. He forced wealthy people to give him "loans" which both they and he knew would never be paid back.

The session of Parliament which met in 1628 was so disturbed over the king's methods that it drew up the *Petition of Right*, which the king signed, just as John signed Magna Charta, because he did not dare do otherwise. It declared, for example, that the king had no right to collect loans or taxes without the consent of Parliament; that people should not be kept in prison without a trial; and that the use of military force in time of peace or quartering soldiers in private homes should not be permitted. Charles had no intention of respecting the document. Soon he dissolved Parliament, and for eleven years (1629–1640) no Parliament met in England.

But still Charles needed money. He compelled some people to accept titles, requiring them to pay well for the privilege. He

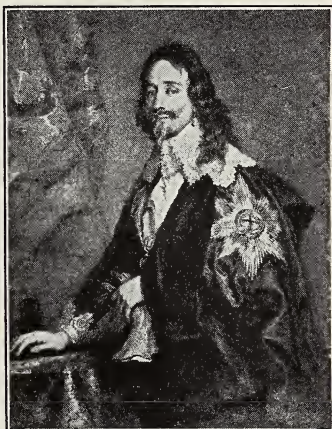
sold "monopolies" granting to certain people the sole right to manufacture certain articles. He collected the tax known as "ship money," which was supposed to be paid by towns on the seacoast to provide a navy to protect them. Charles made the inland counties of England pay this tax as well as the coast towns.

A country gentleman named John Hampden refused to pay the twenty shillings tax levied on him, on the ground that it was not authorized by Parliament. He was tried by a court of the king's judges and lost the case by a close vote. But the king lost friends by this case, because Hampden became a hero, and it was plain that the king had no legal authority to levy the tax.

Under the lead of Archbishop William Laud many Puritans were punished for not worshipping in accordance with the forms of the Church of England. Several thousands

of them left the country, many going to the Massachusetts Bay Colony. But when Laud tried to introduce Church of England services into Scotland, Charles' troubles became serious.¹

Scottish people signed a "National Covenant," declaring that they would not accept any change in their religion. A real rebellion began, and Scottish soldiers invaded England. Charles had to call Parliament to get money to pay an army to meet the Scots. One Parliament was dismissed in short order, but another had to be summoned at once (1640).



KING CHARLES I

This is one of Van Dyck's well-known pictures.

¹ The very first time that a clergyman wearing the Episcopal robe undertook to conduct a service in Edinburgh an old Scotch woman threw at him the stool on which she had been sitting. "Will ye say mass at my lug?" she cried, and the service broke up in a riot. ("Lug" meant "ear.")

Why do you suppose Archbishop Laud tried to force the Scots to accept the practices of the Church of England? Do people who undertake such unwise things ever think they are in the right? Would we support a navy today by taxing only the cities or states that have a coast line? If not, what was wrong about Charles' collection of ship money from the inland countries? If the *Petition of Right* — as was the case — was ignored by the king almost as soon as he signed it, why do English people regard it as the second of their great "liberty" documents?

198. The Long Parliament and Civil War. — This new Parliament later got the name of the *Long Parliament* because its services were not legally ended for twenty years. Its members made up their minds that they were going to show the king where he belonged. Parliament passed a "bill of attainder" sending to execution one of Charles' leading ministers, Thomas Wentworth, Earl of Strafford. Laud met the same fate. Parliament refused to levy taxes or to give the king any money for the army unless important changes were made in the conduct of the government.

Most of the bills which Parliament passed Charles signed, even the one condemning his friend, the Earl of Strafford, to death; but he finally concluded he must take some stand against Parliament. He took some soldiers to the meeting place of Parliament with the intention of arresting five of the leaders. They had heard he was coming, however, and had disappeared. It made a very unfavorable impression upon the country to have the king try to interfere with Parliament while it was actually in session.

Soon civil war broke out (1642) between the king and his followers and the leaders of Parliament. The supporters of the king were often called *Cavaliers*'. The parliamentary party was nicknamed *Roundheads* because some of them cut their hair short, while the Cavaliers sported long curls.

At first the king's soldiers had the better of the struggle, for the Parliamentary troops were poorly organized. Oliver Cromwell finally came into control of the Parliamentary army and reorganized it completely. He already had his "Ironsides," "a lovely company," as he called them, of devout Christians, who went into battle singing hymns and using Scripture texts as battle cries. With this "New Model" army Cromwell and his associates won

a wonderful victory at Marston Moor in 1644 and another at Naseby in 1645.

Then Charles surrendered to the Scots, who, not caring to have him on their hands, turned him over to the leaders of Parliament. Some of Charles' foes would let him keep his crown if he would set up the Presbyterian church in place of the Episcopalian. Cromwell and the other leaders of the army, however, could not see that. A group of soldiers, headed by Colonel Pride, drove the Presbyterian members out of the Parliament building. Those who were left after this affair, which was known as "Pride's Purge," were nicknamed the "Rump Parliament," because it was said they were the "sitting" part of that body.

But still — what to do with the king? The army leaders had about made up their minds that he was a menace to the country. The "Rump" arranged a special court, which they called the *High Court of Justice*, and ordered the king to be tried as a tyrant, traitor, and murderer. Charles maintained that this court was illegal, and refused to make any plea before it. He was found guilty, however, and was beheaded like any ordinary murderer on January 30, 1649. He met his death with courage, and many who had never thought anything good of him before came to look upon him as a martyr.

Why did Charles' attempt to arrest the five members of Parliament violate an important principle of free government? Could members of the United States Congress today be arrested by order of the President? If you had lived in England in 1649, would you have favored executing King Charles?

199. The Rule of Oliver Cromwell. — The Rump Parliament declared England to be a commonwealth without a king or house of lords. In Ireland and Scotland revolts occurred against the Commonwealth. Cromwell suppressed the revolt in Ireland with such terrible thoroughness that for a long time one of the worst things one Irishman could say to another was "the curse of Crum'ell on you." Forces of Scotchmen, supporting the son of Charles I, invaded England, but Cromwell defeated them in two great battles (1650, 1651).

Cromwell got tired of the Rump Parliament and sent them home. He tried to form another Parliament of "godly men," but they were

just as hard to get along with as the Rump ; so they met the same fate. Cromwell refused to be king, but did allow the army leaders to draw up a constitution called the *Instrument of Government* and make him "Lord Protector" for life.

For five years Cromwell ruled England with all the authority that any absolute monarch could have exercised. Cromwell



CROMWELL VISITS THE POET MILTON

Gramstorff Bros.

Cromwell had the responsibility for the government under the Protectorate, and Milton wrote in defense of the Lord Protector. David Neal painted the original of this picture, which gives one an idea of seventeenth-century house furnishings in England.

accepted his task as simply an unpleasant duty, and believed he was carrying out the will of God ; but this was not like the "divine right" of the Stuarts. He gave the country peace and order at home. Abroad, too, he made England's authority respected, defeating both the Dutch and the Spanish.

While Cromwell himself was not unreasonably strict in matters of conduct, other Puritan leaders had no sympathy with the

theaters, games, and other amusements which some of the people thoroughly enjoyed. Besides, no intelligent people like to be governed indefinitely by an army; and it was the army on which Cromwell's authority rested. His life became just one continuous worry and strain. He died in 1658.

Cromwell's son Richard became Protector for a little while, but it was soon evident to him and to everybody else that the job was too big for him. One of the army generals then called back the Rump Parliament. This in turn ordered the election of a new "Convention Parliament," which everybody knew would restore the Stuart family to the throne.

So it might seem that the Puritan revolution was a complete failure. Its leaders had gone further than the majority of the people really desired, and England seemed willing to go back to the old Stuart days again. But this much had been proved: even a king could lose his office and his head. Two great principles underlying the Puritan revolution — the right of Parliament to control taxes and the right of the people to be free from tyrannical government — were later established as the permanent policy of England.

Why do you suppose Cromwell refused the title of king? If he had been able to establish himself at the head of the government without depending upon his army, do you think the Stuarts would ever have come back? Is England justified in reckoning Cromwell today among the great men in its history?

200. The Stuarts Back on the Throne. — Charles, oldest son of Charles I, had been in exile on the continent most of the time for twenty years. When he saw that things were turning in his favor in England, he issued a statement that he would accept Magna Charta and the Petition of Right and other laws limiting the royal power. Invited by the Convention Parliament, which assembled in 1660, he came back and took the throne as Charles II. "It must have been my own fault that I have been away," said he, "for I find nobody but says he is glad to see me." He declared that he was sure of one thing — that he had no mind to go on his travels again. Besides he was fairly popular and he knew about how far it was safe to go. He liked luxury and fast living, and so did a good many other Englishmen. One of his

own chums composed this rather uncomplimentary imaginary epitaph for him :

“ Here lies our sovereign lord and king,
Whose word no man relies on ;
He never said a foolish thing
And never did a wise one.”

The period immediately following 1660 is often called the *Restoration*. It was a restoration of the Stuart family to the throne, and a restoration of the Church of England to power in the religious world. Law after law was passed to make it unpleasant for “Dissenters,” as Protestants who were not satisfied with the English church came to be known. Dissenting ministers were turned out of their churches, and religious meetings of more than five people not under the prescribed forms of the English church were forbidden. Catholics and Dissenters were not allowed to hold public office. Puritanism was now more or less in disgrace. The country seemed to be suffering from a moral relapse. England cannot look back to this period with much pride.

Yet, after all, the old tyranny never came back in full. No one was ever, after the Restoration, put to death in England for religious reasons alone. In 1679 Parliament passed the famous *Habeas Corpus Act* to protect people against false imprisonment. It provided that a person under arrest could be brought before a court and given a speedy trial or else released on bail until the trial should take place, unless his offense was a very serious one. Not only in England but in the United States is the writ of habeas corpus, issued in accordance with this act, considered one of the great safeguards of individual liberty.

Strangely perhaps, Puritans published during Charles II's reign two of the greatest religious works ever composed. These were John Milton's masterpiece, *Paradise Lost*, and *Pilgrim's Progress*, written by John Bunyan, a Baptist preacher who was put in Bedford jail for disregarding the laws against dissenting ministers. The latter was an allegory describing the difficulties of “Christian” on his way to the Celestial City. It has been translated into more languages than any other book except the Bible.

Charles II encouraged the planting of English colonies in the New World. To some friends he gave the district which was named after him, Carolina — his name in Latin was Carolus — and to William Penn he granted the district which the king insisted should be named Pennsylvania. A famous trading company, the Hudson's Bay Company, got a charter during this period and began its extensive operations in Canada.

Does the character of a king have any effect upon the life and ideals of his people? Why were the majority of the English people better satisfied under the rule of Charles II than under Cromwell?

201. The "Glorious" Revolution. — Charles II's unworthy life ended in 1685. He had no legitimate children and was succeeded by his brother, James II. Charles secretly sympathized with the Catholic faith, but James II was perfectly open about it. Besides, he believed in all the divine-right doctrines of earlier Stuart monarchs. A bill known as the Exclusion Bill had been introduced into Parliament to keep him off the throne, but it failed to pass the House of Lords.

Charles II had issued a Declaration of Indulgence, which exempted Catholics and Dissenters from the penalties of the laws against them, but the people had largely ignored it. Now James came out with another Declaration of Indulgence and even ordered it to be read in the English churches. Seven bishops who refused to have it read were ordered to be tried for their disobedience. They were acquitted, much to the joy of most Englishmen. Even though the religious policy then in vogue was unreasonable, the people had no liking for the setting aside of any laws by a mere order from the king.

Protestants hoped that they could get along somehow under James in spite of his "bullheadedness," for his two daughters, Mary and Anne, who would probably follow him on the throne, had been brought up as Protestants. But now, in 1688, a son was born who would undoubtedly be raised a Catholic; and in accordance with the English custom, he would come to the throne ahead of his older half-sisters. This seemed to change the whole situation.

Now not only James' enemies but even some of his supposed supporters united in trying to get rid of him. They sent over

to Holland an invitation to William of Orange,¹ the head of the Dutch government, to come to England and accept the crown. He was the husband of James' older daughter, Mary, and was at the time the leading Protestant ruler in Europe. William was glad enough to come, because he was already engaged in a hard



WILLIAM III

Though none too popular, he gave England the leadership it needed. The flowing hair was, of course, not his own. Most public officials wore wigs in his day.

of some people toward it. It did, however, mark a new day and a notable gain in free government for England.

In 1689 the famous *Bill of Rights* was passed, the third of the great "liberty documents" of England, which together are sometimes called the Bible of English Liberty. The Bill of Rights provided among other things:

- (1) There should be no suspension or change of law in England except by act of Parliament.
- (2) The monarch should not keep a standing army in time of peace except by the consent of Parliament.

¹ After William became king in England, he had to go over to Ireland to put down a rebellion in behalf of James II. William's followers were then frequently called "Orangemen," a name we still sometimes hear.

struggle against King Louis XIV of France, and being King of England would give him some valuable additional help.

When William and Mary came to England, almost all of James' friends and supporters deserted him. He hurriedly left the country; and William, to avoid having another case on his hands like that of Charles I, did not try to capture him. So this revolution was bloodless as far as England was concerned. Those who were pleased with this overturn called it the "Glorious" Revolution. Some things about it were not so glorious, because treachery and selfishness marked the attitude

- (3) Taxes must not be levied except with Parliament's approval.
- (4) There should be frequent meetings of Parliament.

Never again did an English parliament have to pass such a bill. If you compare the first ten amendments to the Constitution of the United States with part of this Bill of Rights, you will find several provisions almost word for word the same. The Revolution of 1688 put an end forever to any notion of divine-right kings in England. The Bill of Rights was the climax of the long struggle for freedom, whose first great achievement was Magna Charta.

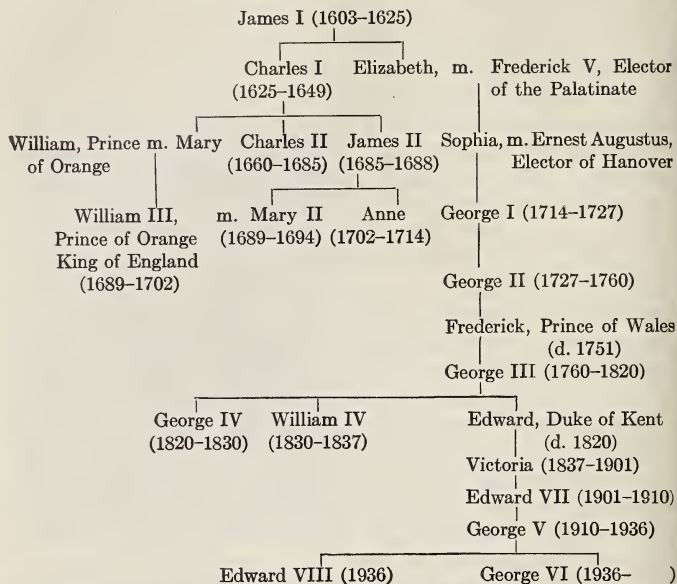
The passage in 1689 of the *Toleration Act* marked a more liberal sentiment on the part of the English people as a whole. It permitted Dissenters to hold religious meetings without restraint. It did not give Catholics, Jews, or Unitarians the benefit of the change; but, as a matter of fact, there was little interference from that time on with anyone's religious beliefs or customs in England. It was some time, however, before any except members of the Church of England could hold public office.

William and Mary were given the throne jointly, with the understanding that whichever one should die first would be followed by the survivor as sole ruler. Much to William's sorrow, for he deeply loved Mary, the Queen died of smallpox in 1694. Since they had no children, the *Act of Settlement* was passed in 1701. This declared that at William's death the title to the crown should go to Mary's sister Anne, and if Anne died without heirs, to Sophia of the German principality of Hanover, or to her children, if they were Protestants. Thus it came about that Anne, who reigned from 1702 to 1714, was followed by George I, Sophia's son, as king of England. There has been no break from that family since 1714; but because Hanover was a German word the royal family's official name was changed during the World War to Windsor.

Why do you suppose Englishmen who would not have opposed a tyrannical king of any other faith did not want a Catholic king on the throne? If the execution of Charles I made friends for him and his family, why did not the expulsion of James II have the same effect?

202. Parties and Cabinets in England. — Before the end of William III's reign some features of present-day English politics began to appear — political parties, for example, and the Cabinet

STUART AND HANOVERIAN DYNASTIES



system, which is so important in English government today. The Exclusion Bill, which was aimed at James II, was in a way the cause of the first party line-up. Those who favored it got the name of *Whigs*; those who opposed it were called *Tories*.

There are several explanations of the origin of these words. You had better look them up and decide which seems to you most probable.

The Whigs were chiefly responsible for the Revolution of 1688. They, in general, favored freer government and more power for Parliament; while Tories preferred a strong king and were less in favor of new ideas. In general, the business men of the cities, the Dissenters, and some rich country gentlemen belonged to the Whigs. The Tories included most of the Church of England clergymen and many lords and landowners. In some matters, however, there seemed little difference between Whigs and Tories. King William III for some time tried to hold the

good will of both Whigs and Tories by choosing his ministers from both parties. Before the end of his reign, however, he found it desirable to have his ministers represent the party that controlled the House of Commons, for then the law-making and the administrative branches would more likely work in harmony.

When Anne was on the throne (1702–1714), some of her women friends and public men whom she and they liked exercised much influence in the government, for Anne herself was none too bright. The present Cabinet system got definitely under way after George I came over from Germany to be King of England. George could not speak a word of English, and both he and his son, George II, were more interested in German affairs than they were in English. George I tried to talk to his Cabinet in Latin, but that did not work very well. The result was that the king let the Cabinet direct the actions of the government, and the foremost member of the Cabinet became the country's active leader as long as he stayed in office. Robert Walpole, who held office from 1721 to 1742, was England's first real Prime Minister.

Two other matters of considerable importance were events of Queen Anne's reign. She was the last English monarch ever to veto a bill passed by Parliament. Since 1707 any bill which gets through both houses is signed by the monarch whether he likes it or not. In that same year the separation between Scotland and England was brought to an end. After James I came to the English throne both countries had the same king but remained separate kingdoms. Now Scotland and England were united as the kingdom of Great Britain. Scottish lords and commoners entered the House of Lords and House of Commons, which now represented the entire island and not merely England and Wales.

What do you suppose would happen if an English king now should veto an act of Parliament (kings have never said that they gave up their veto power)? If so long before the United States became independent English monarchs ceased to use the veto, why do you suppose the United States Constitution gave that power to the President? Do you suppose England would have developed its present Cabinet system if it had not had kings who couldn't speak English?

203. Louis XIV, the Man and the King. — Now let us turn to France and the king whose reign was the longest of any ruler of a

great country in all history. Louis XIV came to the throne in 1643, when he was only a very young boy. England was then going through its civil war between Charles I and Parliament. Cromwell, Charles II, James II, William of Orange, and Queen Anne came and went; and before Louis died in 1715, the German George I had become King of England. Louis passed the crown on to his great-grandson.



Louis XIV

This is a copy of a portrait in the Louvre, Paris.

All the things for which the Stuarts had stood in England were believed and practiced by Louis XIV, who enjoyed being called the "Grand Monarque." Louis really did look like a king, and in some ways acted like one. He was always dignified; his manners and language were polite and correct. He thought well of himself. The expression "I am the state" — "L'état, c'est moi" — is often credited to him. Whether he said it or not, he doubtless thought it. He adopted the sun as his symbol, and his standard showed him in the center of things

sending out rays of glory in all directions. The nobles and dukes of the country got a great thrill out of handing him his shirt when he was dressing, or doing some other silly little act of homage.

For a king, he was a hard worker. He referred to his position as "the trade of a king." He had regularly scheduled hours to meet his ministers and other people who wanted to see him. He was very ambitious and determined to make France the center of the nations of Europe. He was fortunate during part of his reign in having two very able ministers, Cardinal Mazarin (mäzärän'), who followed Richelieu as the chief minister in France, and Colbert

(cōlbār'). Under Colbert taxes were regularly and efficiently collected; merchants and skilled workmen were invited to France from other countries; roads and canals were constructed so as to carry the raw materials and products of French industries. Fine manufactures of wood, clothing, tapestry, and paper helped to make France famous.

Not being satisfied with the quarters in which he had to live in Paris, Louis had a marvelous palace and court laid out at Versailles (versä'y), a few miles out from Paris. There he spent a hundred million dollars' worth of the people's money on the most elaborate royal establishment that Europe had yet seen (p. 370). His life there became famous for its luxury, display, and immorality. His court was the center of the fashion and culture of the time. Louis Quatorze (kătorz') (XIV) furniture became a fad in his day as well as for some modern money-spenders. He encouraged dramatists, sculptors, and painters. The French language became the fashionable language of European courts. Perhaps Louis didn't realize the burden of his government upon the masses. The nobles and other courtiers would not tell him anything unpleasant, and they would hardly have dared if they wanted to do so.

One measure of his did incalculable damage to France. You remember the Edict of Nantes, issued by King Henry IV. which gave the Huguenots the right of free worship in certain places. In 1685, following earlier persecutions, Louis revoked that edict. Huguenots in dismay frequently tried to leave the country; and in spite of guards placed on the frontiers by the government, many thousands of them took refuge in England, Holland, Prussia, and some of the English colonies in the New World. Since most of the Huguenots were capable, industrious people, French industry and trade suffered a serious setback as a result of the king's uncalled-for act of intolerance.

What good do you suppose Louis XIV expected to gain by revoking the religious privileges of the Huguenots? Was it possible for a king to spend as much money as Louis XIV did without having some idea of its effect upon the people as a whole?

For locations connected with this and following sections, see the maps on page 345 and facing page 390.

204. Louis XIV and His Wars. — Having his own way and living in such magnificence at home might give any king, certainly Louis XIV, the notion that he could do as he pleased in dealing with other lands. He had the idea that France ought to reach certain natural boundaries. The Pyrenees were natural enough on the south. To the northeast the Rhine seemed to be a similar dividing line. But between the Rhine and the boundaries of France in 1648 there were a number of districts ruled over by other monarchs, including the Spanish Netherlands, most of which are in the modern kingdom of Belgium, and much of the provinces of Alsace and Lorraine. In order to add this territory to France, Louis reorganized his army and made it the largest standing military force that Europe had yet seen.

During his reign Louis XIV engaged in five wars. They seemed to gain something for France; but they were all expensive, and each one either made more enemies for Louis or strengthened the hostility toward him. His ablest and most unrelenting opponent was the William of Orange who became William III of England. William set up the principle known as the *balance of power* — that is, no one nation should be so strong as to dominate all the rest, and several nations should associate, if necessary, to prevent it. William, not being able alone to halt Louis' ambitions, formed from time to time alliances with other countries that also were afraid of what Louis might do to them. The fighting also involved the colonies of England and France in North America.

One notable struggle which ended in 1697 left most of Alsace in French hands. Although Alsace and the neighboring province of Lorraine, which later came under French rule, were both originally German, French influence soon prevailed, and the people in the course of time became more French than German.

The last big war in which Louis XIV took part was known as the War of the Spanish Succession (1701–1713). It started over the question of who should be King of Spain. The Spanish king had no direct heirs. One of his sisters had married Louis XIV and another the Holy Roman Emperor, who was also archduke of Austria. The King of Spain finally decided that his crown should pass to Philip, a grandson of Louis XIV. Louis introduced

this grandson to the court at Versailles, remarking, "Gentlemen, behold the King of Spain." "The Pyrenees are no more," he declared.

But this time Louis spoke out of turn. He still had King William to reckon with. William brought together England,



GIBRALTAR

Publishers' Photo

This imposing rock commands the entrance to the Mediterranean Sea. If you look closely, you will see in the face of the cliff some of the galleries where guns are concealed.

Holland, Austria, Prussia, and some other states, in what he called the *Grand Alliance* (1701). Soon after that William died; but the war went on. When certain members of other royal families had died, it began to look as if the Hapsburg family of Austria would get so much territory and power that it would be as dangerous to the safety of Europe as a combination of France and Spain might be.

So peace was made. The war had spread to many parts of the world, and the treaty of Utrecht (ū'trekt) (1713) and another made about the same time were almost world-wide in their provisions. It

Peter the Great		INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION BEGINS			
(1689)	1725	Bach	Handel	Partitions of Poland	Haydn
		Frederick the Great (Prussia)			
		1740			1786
Treaty of Utrecht 1713		Plassey 1757	Treaty of Paris 1763		Treaty of Paris 1783
Louis XIV (1643) 1715		Voltaire Rousseau	Smith	U. S. declare independence 1776	French Revolution begins 1789 Washington, President 1789
		Franklin			
1701 A.D.		18TH CENTURY A.D.			
		1800			

was agreed that Louis' grandson might keep the throne of Spain, but he had to promise that never would the crowns of France and Spain be united. Spain gave up to Austria the so-called Spanish Netherlands, which thereafter were known as the Austrian Netherlands, and also considerable territory in Italy. England gained firm control of the entrance to the Mediterranean Sea by receiving the Rock of Gibraltar, which she still holds. Newfoundland, Acadia, as Nova Scotia and New Brunswick were then called, and the country around Hudson Bay were given up by France to England. Thus the first break came in French territory in the New World.

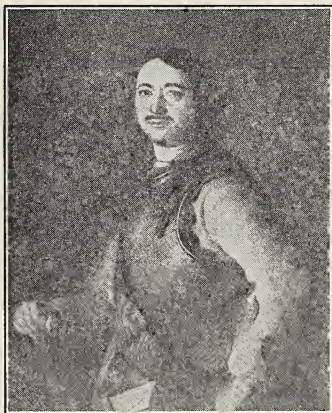
Louis XIV's last war left the country heavily burdened with debt. Soon after its end, the reign of the "Sun King" also closed (1715). Good sense seemed to come to Louis XIV in his old age and he urged his great-grandson, Louis XV, who was to follow him, "Do not imitate my love for building and for war, but assuage the misery of my people." The advice fell on deaf ears. The new king was not even ambitious, and was still more selfish and extravagant than his predecessor. Louis XV's reign was also a long one (1715-1774). One hundred and thirty-one years under two successive monarchs — and two such as Louis XIV and Louis XV were! What could you expect!

Do you suppose Louis XIV never realized until he was on his death-bed the mistakes he had made? Would nations be likely to go to war today on account of the personal and family ambitions of monarchs? Does the treaty of Utrecht have any importance in the history of the United States?

205. What Peter the Great Did for Russia. — Russia, off to the east, had been out of the general European picture for some

time. You remember that it had been conquered by Mongol chieftains, who gave to Russia an Asiatic quality which it has never entirely lost. Even Russian Christianity came from Constantinople and not from Rome. The established church in Russia was the Greek Orthodox.

Geography also had something to do with keeping Russia and western Europe apart. Peasants could live on the soil of most of Russia without very great effort. The Russian peasant, therefore, had no particular inducement to become enterprising or progressive. Russia in mediæval times had no harbors; and when she did get them, there was something wrong with them. Even when her kings made their way to the White Sea on the north, they found it icebound for about nine months in the year. Swedes and Poles, until about the beginning of the eighteenth century, cut Russia off from the Baltic Sea. Late in the eighteenth century, when Russia did get to the Black Sea, its exit was in the possession of another nation.



PETER THE GREAT

In 1613, when a change took place in the Russian royal line, Michael Romanof came to the throne. His family lasted until the present Russian government came into being in 1917. The Russian Czar (or Tsar — probably a form of the old name Caesar) ruled his people with the utmost absolutism; yet to the Russian peasants he was their "Little Father."

The man who brought Russia into actual contact with western Europe was the famous Peter the Great, the extraordinary character who ruled the country from 1689 to 1725. About seven feet tall, he must have been striking in appearance. He was utterly heartless and cruel, indulging in liquor and other excesses to a disgraceful extent; yet he was ambitious, quick to learn, and in

his way progressive. He could not read and write until after he was eleven years old ; but there was no limit to the wide range of things that intrigued him.

After Peter became czar, he made up his mind to bring western civilization to Russia and to get for Russia a "window to the west" so that he could look out on Europe. This would give him a seaport that would permit him to carry on direct trade between Russia and western Europe instead of having to do it by way of other countries. Peter decided to get first-hand contact with the western civilization which he was sure made western Europeans superior to his own people. So he traveled in disguise with a few associates in Prussia, Holland, and England, even working as a laborer in a shipyard in Holland. He liked to work with tools and to tinker with such things as watches.

When Peter went back to Russia after this educational tour, he took with him shipbuilders, miners, mechanics, and engineers, to show Russia how to do the things that western Europe knew. He had roads and canals constructed, mines opened, and ships built like those he had seen in Holland. He set up a new postal system and police organization in his cities, and organized a new army like that of the Prussians.

For the upper classes Peter introduced schools. He took out of the Russian alphabet some letters that were not needed, though those that remained were in many cases more like the ancient Greek than like the Latin letters used by the nations of western Europe. He introduced the calendar which was then in use in western Europe, though he did not accept the changes that Pope Gregory XIII had already made in 1582. For over three hundred

RUSSIAN	ENGLISH	RUSSIAN	ENGLISH	RUSSIAN	ENGLISH	RUSSIAN	ENGLISH
А	A	З	Z	П	P	Ц	TS
Б	B	И	I	Р	R	Ч	CH
В	V	К	K	С	S	Ш	SH
Г	G	Л	L	Т	T	Щ	SCH
Д	D	М	M	У	U	Э	E
Е	E	Н	N	Ф	F	Ю	YOU
Ж	ZH, J	О	O	Х	H	Я	YA

RUSSIAN LETTERS AND ENGLISH EQUIVALENTS

Compare Russian letters with Greek, and you will find numerous similarities. It is not always easy to represent the sound for which a Russian letter stands by an exactly corresponding English letter, and vice versa. The Russian alphabet has been changed somewhat since Peter's day.

years dates in Russia were twelve or more days behind those observed by the western European nations and the New World.

Peter wanted his people to look and act like Europeans. So he made the Russians cut off their cherished long beards or pay a heavy tax if they insisted on wearing them. They had to shorten their long robes and wear clothes like the Germans. Whether the men wanted to or not, they had to learn to smoke tobacco. Women were allowed to appear in the same public places with men. He tried to make over in a few years Russian habits and customs that had grown up through centuries. The upper classes took on a coating of western civilization which in some respects sank in, but the great peasant classes of Russia were not very much changed.

Peter did bring Russia into political contact with western Europe. He also got his "window to the west." This was partly due to the recklessness of the young king of Sweden, Charles XII, who made war upon the countries south and east of the Baltic. In the battle of Poltā'va (1709) Peter's troops wiped out Charles' army; and when peace was made, Sweden lost her possessions south and east of the Baltic. Peter had already begun to build a new and splendid capital in that region. In the swamps bordering on the Neva River he founded St. Petersburg. The undertaking cost thousands of lives and an enormous amount of money. But what was that to Peter? He got his city!

What changes in the name of St. Petersburg have taken place in the last few years? Why do you suppose the present Russian government has gone back to Moscow for its capital? Do you suppose the Russian people appreciated what Peter was trying to do for Russia? If you think of Peter as "the Great," what arguments might you offer to justify the use of that expression?

206. Russia under Peter's Successors. — During most of the eighteenth century after Peter's death women were on the throne in Russia. The Empress Elizabeth (1741-1762), Peter's daughter, took part of Finland away from Sweden. She was followed by Peter III, whose German wife Catherine (1762-1796) got him out of the way after a few months and became Empress herself. She is sometimes called "the Great," but she did not earn the title by honesty and straightforwardness.

Catherine did try, however, to bring about some improvements in the condition of her people. She had wars with the Turks, and added permanently to Russian territory the peninsula called the Crimea. Thus she got an outlet on the Black Sea, which Peter himself had failed to secure. The Russian government was already looking toward bringing Constantinople under Russian rule, but that was an ambition never to be realized. The French language and social customs were widely introduced into Russia in Catherine's reign — at least among the upper classes. In some other respects Russia went backward, because serfdom became more widely extended than it had been before. Catherine shared with the rulers of Prussia and Austria in one of the most despicable things that was ever done in Europe — the dividing up of Poland among these three rulers.

Does Catherine remind you of any other woman ruler of a nation?

207. The Hohenzollerns and Prussia. — The name "Prussia" appears first on the map of Europe as that of a district near the southeastern corner of the Baltic Sea, whose ruler in the course of time obtained the title of Duke of Prussia. But what we call Prussia today has Berlin as its capital, and the history of that part of Germany goes back to the district known as the mark of Brandenburg. As a reward for lending money to a Holy Roman Emperor, Frederick, count of the little district of Hohenzollern in southern Germany, received the district of Brandenburg to rule over. The story of the Hohenzollern family tells much of the story of Germany.

The ruler of Brandenburg was one of the "Electors" who chose the Holy Roman Emperor. In 1618, when the last of the dukes of Prussia died, the ruling family of Brandenburg claimed, through some distant relationship, that the title and country belonged to them. Brandenburg was somewhat prominent in the latter part of the Thirty Years' War, and was one of the few districts which seemed to profit by it. The rulers of Brandenburg also inherited several other titles. Thus the territory of Brandenburg and Prussia grew until it occupied considerable space on the map of Germany, though it was not all in one solid mass.

The Hohenzollerns were not satisfied with the titles that they

had the right to use. They wanted to be *kings* of something. Frederick William, the so-called Great Elector (1640–1688), who took part in the Thirty Years' War, did much to build up his country. He invited to his dominions Huguenots who found things uncomfortable in France after 1685. The Elector Frederick III (1688–1713) agreed to support the monarchs who were allied against Louis XIV, and in return they consented to his taking the title of King in Prussia. After that concession we talk about the kings in Prussia rather than about the rulers in Brandenburg. The next king was Frederick William I (1713–1740),¹ who, in spite of his peculiarities, left Prussia stronger at the end of his reign than it was at the beginning.

The rulers of Prussia had no use for democracy. At the same time, they tried to make the people believe that they wanted to promote the people's welfare — and perhaps they did in their way. The most influential people in Prussia were the titled landlords known as *Junkers*. Much of their land had been taken away from Catholic churches, and some of the rest was acquired by virtually making the peasant farmers into serfs.

When the lands over which Prussian kings ruled had come to them in so many different ways — inheritance, gift, conquest, and the like — why do you suppose they had such an easy time in setting up an autocratic rule over their somewhat scattered territories?

The map facing page 390 shows Prussia as it was at the beginning of the reign of Frederick the Great. After studying §§ 208–210, refer to the map again and see what changes are necessary to make it correct for 1789 or 1795.

208. The Accomplishments of Frederick the Great. — Frederick II ruled Prussia for forty-six years (1740–1786). Here is another ruler who has been labeled “the Great,” but greatness did not mean goodness in his case any more than in some other cases. When he was a boy, he showed no signs of ever becoming a successful ruler. Music, dancing, and poetry attracted him much more than government or fighting, and all through his life he

¹ He had a hobby for tall soldiers. Any young man six and a half feet tall or more needed to look out for himself, or else he might be kidnaped and carried away to join Frederick's “Blue Children.” He had the habit of walking around the streets carrying a cane; and if he saw someone whose actions he did not like, he did not hesitate to use the cane on him. He would even go into private houses without warning and see whether the people were living frugally or not.

continued to be interested in them. His father and he had many disagreements because of Frederick's boyhood laziness. But as king, Frederick did all that his father could have asked and some besides.



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A STATUE OF FREDERICK THE GREAT

This was made at a china factory founded by Frederick and operated under the direction of later Prussian rulers.

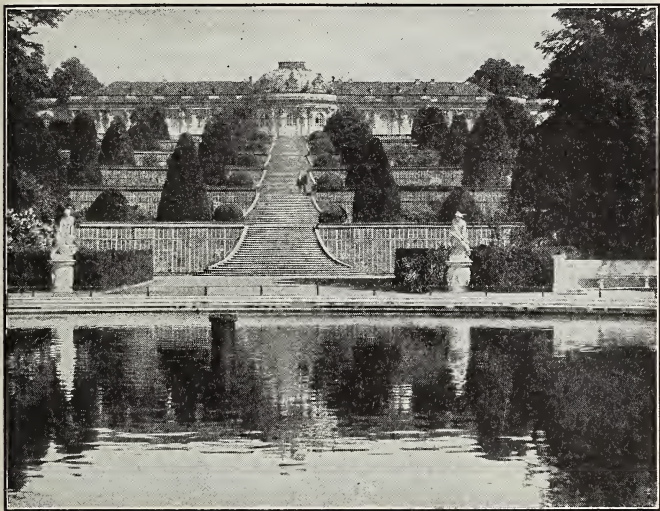
Moral principles never bothered Frederick. If anything seemed to serve his interests or that of Prussia, he went ahead and did it. "I can find professors enough to justify my acts," he declared. He had very little religious conviction and no bigotry. "Every man should have the right to get to heaven in his own way," he asserted. For some time he and the French philosopher Voltaire were friends. But Voltaire thought he knew more about fighting than Frederick, and Frederick was sure he was a better writer than Voltaire; so they fell out after a while.

Frederick made his people think well of him. Sometimes they called him Vater Fritz

and sometimes Unser (our) Fritz. He established elementary schools so that his people could learn to read and write, encouraged trade and industry, and reformed the Prussian courts so that they would give quicker and better justice to the people. During his reign he kept his country at peace a surprisingly large share of the time.

Almost immediately after Frederick came to the throne he committed his first act of international dishonor. He wanted the district of Silē'sia, which was under Austrian rule, and suddenly marched his troops into Silesia and took possession of it. Maria

Theresa (te rē'sa), who came to the throne in Austria the same year (1740) that Frederick became king of Prussia, declared Silesia to be "the jewel of her crown" and had no mind to lose it without a fight. So the "War of the Austrian Succession" began. Frederick had France and some German states on his side, and the



SANS SOUCI PALACE

Publishers' Photo

At Potsdam, Frederick the Great built this famous palace with its beautiful grounds, and here he lived for forty years. The place looks today much as it did in his time.

English and the Dutch sided with Austria because they did not like France. After eight years (1740-1748) Maria Theresa gave up the struggle for a time.

Frederick did not try to be popular with all his fellow monarchs. He said once that the troubles of Europe were due to three old cats, meaning Elizabeth of Russia, Maria Theresa, and Madame Pompadour, a lady friend of Louis XV of France. Maria Theresa after a few years tried once more to regain Silesia. This time she even won France to her side, as well as Russia, Sweden, and some German states. Frederick's only strong ally was England,

which stood with him because France was on the other side. England and France were already at war in North America and India. In § 221 you may read of their world-wide conflict.

The European phase of this struggle is commonly known as the Seven Years' War (1756–1763). At one time Frederick's chances of winning looked pretty black. England did not send soldiers over to the continent but helped Frederick with money. Russians, Austrians, and French all invaded Prussian territory, but Frederick defeated his foes in two great battles. When England finally was ready to quit after beating the French in America and India, luck again turned Frederick's way. Empress Elizabeth of Russia died, and Russia withdrew from the ranks of his enemies, for Elizabeth's successor was a great admirer of Frederick.

When peace was made in 1763, Frederick still had Silesia. Then he joined with Russia and Austria in dividing up Poland and added considerable more territory in that way. His seeming success through his military genius and acts of selfishness and trickery set a bad example for later rulers of his own and of other countries.

Why do you suppose Frederick used the French language himself when he was so much of the time an enemy of France? How many qualities did Frederick display which a good ruler ought to show, and how many did he display which no ruler ought to show?

209. Austria in the Eighteenth Century. — No other family ruled for so many centuries over such an illogical mixture of peoples as did the Hapsburg rulers of Austria. Germans in Austria, Magyars in Hungary, Czechs (checks) in Bohemia, Italians in Italy, Flemings and Walloons in the Netherlands, were all to be found under Austrian rule at one time. Time after time, an Austrian was elected Holy Roman Emperor; and even though this was not much more than a name, it carried a sort of prestige in much of Germany also.

The young and attractive Maria Theresa in 1740 succeeded to her father's dominions in Austria and elsewhere. Her father, the Emperor Charles VI, who had no male heirs, fearing what might happen at his death, had worked out an arrangement known as the *Pragmatic Sanction*, by which it was agreed that she would peacefully inherit her father's territories. Frederick of Prussia,

as we have already seen, was the only one to ignore it. But probably he would have got away with his thievery of Silesia just as successfully against any man ruler.

Maria Theresa shared in the first of the partitions of Poland, but was the only one of the three rulers who showed any conscience about it. "She wept," it was said, when she thought of the injustice of it, "but she took," for she figured that Poland was going to lose out anyway, and Austria might as well have a share in the spoil. Maria Theresa was not elected Holy Roman Emperor, but some other member of the family was, and her son and successor Joseph II obtained that title as well. So that combination of diverse lands which people called Austria held a place at the end of the eighteenth century among the leading powers of Europe.



MARIA THERESA

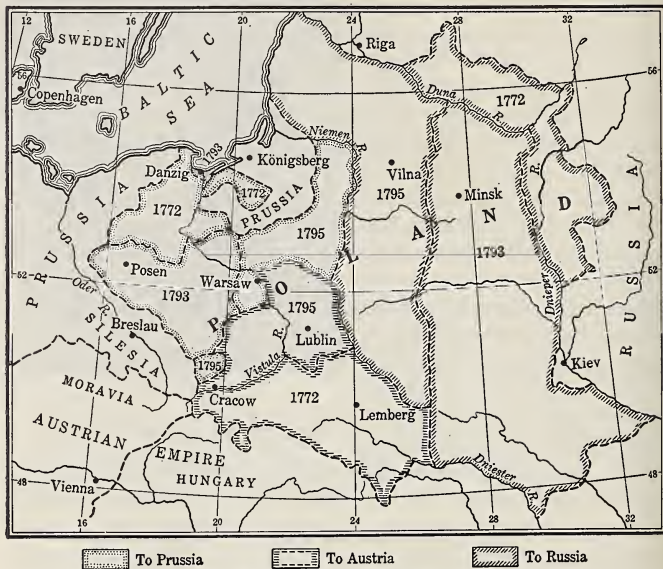
Austria's ruler looked the part and commanded the respect of her people.

People of many different nationalities have found it possible to live peacefully under the American flag. Is there any difference between that situation and the conditions prevailing under Austrian rule in the eighteenth century? Would a man have been likely to do any better than Maria Theresa as ruler of Austria?

210. The Misfortunes of Poland. — On looking at a map of Europe for the seventeenth century and much of the eighteenth, we might think Poland was one of the great powers. No European country except Russia occupied so much territory. But Poland was unfortunately placed for its own safety. The country was largely a broad plain with neither rivers nor mountains big enough to serve as a protection.

Poland's form of government, as well as its geography, made it weak. There was an elected king, often an outsider, with very little power. A parliament made laws and elected the king, but

it worked on the ridiculous basis that there had to be unanimous consent to the making of any law. This so-called *liberum veto* was a frightful source of weakness. Moreover, the people were very unevenly balanced socially. About 1,000,000 nobles had all



THE PARTITIONS OF POLAND

Compare these with the recent partition between Germany and Russia.

the political power there was; most of the rest of the 13,000,000 inhabitants were serfs, though not so utterly downtrodden as those in Russia or perhaps even the peasants in France.

As Russia, Prussia, and Austria grew strong, they looked greedily at their large but weak neighbor. Catherine the Great, of Russia, even succeeded in having one of her associates made King of Poland. In 1772, at the suggestion of Frederick the Great, the first partition of Poland took place, as Russia, Prussia, and Austria occupied parts of Polish territory nearest to themselves.

This piece of robbery aroused the Polish people and made them adopt a stronger constitution, but it was too late. A second

partition of Polish territory came in 1793, with only Russia and Prussia participating. The last of the three partitions came in 1795. The Poles, under their hero Kosciuszko (koshooos'ko), had risen in revolt against their enemies, but the revolt was suppressed. This time all three neighbors joined in the division of territory. When they got through, Poland had disappeared from the map. It was one of the most inexcusable international crimes in history. Not until World War I were the Poles able again to gain their freedom, only to lose it once more after twenty years.

England and France neither took part in the division of Poland nor did anything to stop it. Why? Could Poland have saved itself if its government had been stronger before 1793? What two famous Poles assisted in the American Revolution?

211. The Eighteenth Century at Its Worst — England. — The eighteenth century in western Europe was in many respects a low point morally and economically. Before the century was over, a great industrial change, which we call the Industrial Revolution, started in England; but the first part of the century saw little improvement. Most of the land of England was still held by a limited number of nobles. Representation in the House of Commons was based on a distribution made centuries before. Towns once having thousands of inhabitants now had few or none at all. These decayed villages still had the right to elect members of Parliament, while prosperous cities were growing up without any representation at all.

While Robert Walpole was at the head of affairs, one common saying of his was, "Every man has his price," and another, "Let sleeping dogs lie." After George III became king (1760-1820), members of Parliament were paid to support the king's policies. Some of the first cartoons ever widely circulated were drawn by the Englishman Hogarth with reference to such things as the buying of voters with money or drink on election day.

The mass of the people spent too much time and money drinking and gambling. Some who could have worked for an honest living preferred to beg or live on the government's charity. Putting men in prison for not paying their debts was altogether too common. How much could a man earn toward paying his debts if he were in jail? In the latter half of the eighteenth cen-

ture, when factories began to go up, men went from the farms to the towns to work in the factories, or to other places to mine the coal or iron which the factories needed. Conditions in these factories and mines and in the homes in which the families of workers lived were often intolerable from any good standard of health and decency.



AN EIGHTEENTH CENTURY ELECTION DAY

This cartoon by the English artist Hogarth may have exaggerated actual conditions, but probably not very much after all. Bribing voters is not a strictly modern art.

The same low moral tone even spread into the church. Religion to many people meant only a formal attendance at services on Sunday. Some Englishmen, notably the Wesley brothers, John and Charles, and George Whitefield, tried to arouse the Church of England to a deeper and more sincere religious life. They had no thought of dividing the Church; but when they were not allowed to preach in the Church, they went outside. Their strict habits of life caused them to be nicknamed "Methodists," and the

name stuck to them. This Methodist movement did arouse a livelier and truer religious interest, both in and out of the English Church, and was the beginning of the Methodist Episcopal Church organization, which is today one of the most numerous Protestant religious bodies in the United States. Besides preaching thousands of sermons in England, George Whitefield made three trips to the English colonies in the New World.

Do you suppose the average citizen of an English town in 1760 thought he was oppressed or abused? What arguments might have been offered in England by people who did not want any changes made in representation or the right to vote? Could disgraceful and open evils go on for many years if the masses of the people really wanted to change them?



JOHN WESLEY

212. The Eighteenth Century at Its Worst — France. — Louis XIV handed over to his great-grandson a kingdom not only burdened with taxes but under the control of as disreputable a gang of useless nobles and court followers as one could imagine. Did Louis XV and his associates do anything to improve France? Not they. A common saying among them was "After us the deluge." Many of the burdensome restrictions upon peasant workers which had been inherited from old feudal times were still in force. Taxes, at times, took as much as four-fifths of a peasant's earnings.

Practically all power was in the hands of the king and his ministers or associates. The Estates-General, which was supposed to represent the French people, did not meet after 1614 — not once during the long reigns of Louis XIV and Louis XV. The French people had no way of letting the government know what they wished, and anyone who was brave enough to ask for reforms risked being sent to prison for his nerve. Secret orders, bearing the king's signature and known as "lettres de cachet" (lettr' de

cashā'), under which people could be put in prison without a trial, were sometimes sold or given away. It is said that 150,000 of these were issued during the reign of Louis XV.

Everybody in France belonged to one of three "estates." The clergy were the First Estate. They had few taxes to pay and enjoyed all sorts of privileges and exemptions. Many parish priests were conscientious, hard-working men who loved the people with whom they associated; but at the top of the system bishops and abbots frequently lived in luxury and ease. The nobles were the Second Estate. Their titles and privileges had come down to them from earlier feudal times. Sometimes they got enormous salaries for doing little or nothing, and paid very few taxes in proportion to their wealth. (Is that true anywhere today?)

Everybody else belonged to the Third Estate. Around 1789 there were perhaps 24,000,000 in France in the Third Estate as compared with 125,000 or so in each of the first two. Yet this Third Estate had no political rights at all. Some of its members were able and enterprising merchants or professional men. They made up the *bourgeois* class, which paid an enormous share of the tax burden but had nothing to say as to what should be done with the taxes. Others in the Third Estate were industrial workers or artisans, who lived in the towns and cities, and — the most numerous group of all — the peasants, who worked on the estates of the nobles or sometimes had their own little farms.

All sorts of objectionable customs were still common. By the practice known as the *corvée* (cor vā') peasants could be called upon to leave their own work at any time to help in making roads or carrying on other public works. A tax on salt known as the *gabelle* was collected regularly. Every family had to buy a certain amount of salt whether it needed that much or not. Taxes on land and incomes were levied in accordance with what the officials thought they could get. One man is quoted as saying, "I should be lost if it were not suspected I am dying of hunger."

Under such conditions there was little inducement for anybody to be thrifty or enterprising. Yet France was no worse off than other countries on the continent of Europe. But more people in France than in most other large countries realized how much better things could be, and began to complain. Because so much

has been written about the "Old Régime" (razh ēm'), as this period we are talking about is called, we know much more about France than we do about some other countries. But if France was better than most of the rest, what must the rest of them have been!

Would you have preferred to live in France under Louis XV or in England under the early or the later Stuart kings? Do rich people always consciously try to keep down the poor people?

213. Learning, Literature, and the Arts in the Seventeenth and the Eighteenth Centuries. — Even if the masses in any country did not know or appreciate the finer things of life, there were some in every country who did. English literature was represented by Defoe, with his *Robinson Crusoe* and *History of the Plague in London*; Addison and Swift, who were essayists of considerable skill; Pope, who could put together verses that were sometimes worth remembering; Goldsmith, who wrote poems, plays, and stories; and Fielding and Richardson, the pioneers in novel-writing in English. Their work, if not of the highest order, at least was good.

In France in the later seventeenth century lived three great dramatists — Corneille (cornā'y'), Racine (raseen'), and Molière (moliār'). The first two wrote in the style followed by ancient Greek dramatists; but Molière put real people into his comedies, and those who witnessed them saw Frenchmen of their own time and not imaginary characters or people of days gone by.

Perhaps the greatest of all German authors was Goethe (gě'tě) (1749–1832), who comes as near to being the German Shakespeare as anyone whom we might pick out. Most famous of all his products is the drama *Faust* (fowst), which some rank among the finest things ever written. It is the story of a magician of the Middle Ages who in return for a promise of worldly happiness and fame sold himself to the devil. (A statue of Goethe and another German author, Schiller, is pictured on page 608.)

Music continued to make its contribution to the uplift and joy of life and became steadily broader in character. Out of Italy came some of the most notable new features in music, especially from Florence. Composers used music in telling the story of a drama and composed melodies that expressed the sentiment of

the play itself. Then they went further and provided instruments to accompany the actors who sang, and thus started what we call the *orchestra*. When *operas* — for that name came to be applied to a drama which made much use of music — proved so successful in Florence, city after city in western Europe built its “opera house” and gave it a prominent place in the city’s life. Priests in some of the churches turned to religious uses the enjoyment of good music, and in the chapel or “oratory” connected with a church musical plays with a Biblical story as their background were presented. Thus the *oratorio* came into being.

Italy also became famous for its violins. The city of Cremona made the greatest contribution to this type of musical instrument. A family named Amati did much to develop the violin into the instrument which contributes so much to the music of our own day. One of the greatest of the pupils of the Amati family was Antonio Stradivari (or Stradivarius) (1644–1737). His violins could produce such wonderful music that his name still stands as the greatest of all violin makers.

Out of Germany and Austria there came in the eighteenth century an array of some of the greatest musicians who ever lived — Bach, Handel, Haydn, Mozart, Beethoven.¹ Since their work still ranks among the best of modern music, we will give more attention to them later (§ 317) in our story when we touch upon the development of the art and culture of our own time.

In science England and France stood out during this period. Greatest of all in that field was the name of Isaac Newton. His discovery of the law of gravitation was the most notable idea that science received during these two centuries. William Harvey learned the facts about the circulation of the blood and thus made possible a better understanding of the human body and of the sciences of medicine and surgery. Over in Pennsylvania, Benjamin Franklin, the most versatile man in the English colonies, worked out inventions of value and made his notable discovery that lightning and electricity are the same.

In France, the naturalist Buffon studied living things and developed a popular interest in what we sometimes call natural

¹ (bäk, hăn'del, hî'd'n, mō'tsart, bā tō'ven. For pictures of some of these see pages 610, 611.)

history. Lavoisier (lävwäziä') was one of the founders of the modern science of chemistry. The Montgolfier (mongōlfīä') brothers sent up balloons and thus took the first step in the field of aviation (p. 579).

In England, France, and Prussia societies were organized to encourage the study of scientific topics. In England it was the



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BENJAMIN FRANKLIN'S PRINTING SHOP

In the rather humble way indicated by this picture, Franklin started on the road to fame in business and literature. His interest in science developed a little later.

Royal Society; in France it was the French Academy, chartered by Cardinal Richelieu; in Berlin it was the Royal Academy.

England also had notable names in art and architecture. Sir Christopher Wren built St. Paul's Cathedral in London and helped to refashion that city after it had been nearly destroyed by a terrible fire in 1666. If you go to that cathedral today, you will see this inscription in his honor, worded in Latin: "If you seek my memorial, look around you."

In the realm of art, the name of Van Dyck of Antwerp, who painted members of the Stuart family, is notable. Works of art of high quality were also produced in England in the eighteenth century. Outstanding painters of that period were Joshua Reynolds and the American-born Gilbert Stuart, whose portrait of George Washington we know well.



Wide World

ST. PAUL'S CATHEDRAL IN LONDON

This is the most famous work of the architect Christopher Wren. Together with many other famous London buildings, it was badly damaged by German bombs in 1941.

rather as philosophers than as literary men. Here we find the spirit of the Renaissance expressed in politics. Many of the doctrines in the American Declaration of Independence go back to the Englishman John Locke (1632-1704). He was interested in science, in medicine, and in religion, as well as in philosophy and government. He believed that government should not force people to accept any one religion, for that, he said, might make them hypocrites. He had no use for the "divine right" of kings or any kind of absolute government.

The three most famous French philosophers of the eighteenth century were Montesquieu (mon tēs ki ū') (1689-1755), Voltaire

Is it an honor today for anyone to be chosen to the English Royal Society or the French Academy? Is there any scientist today from any country who in your opinion would deserve to rank with Isaac Newton? Why do you suppose no one before the time of William Harvey discovered the truth about the circulation of the blood?

214. Preachers of New Ideals in Society and Government. — Some other famous and influential writers affected the thought and life of people more through their ideas than through the way they expressed them; so we think of them

(1694–1778), and Rousseau (roo sō') (1712–1778). Montesquieu's special interest was in politics and government. He believed the English form of government was the best ever devised. His most famous writing was called *The Spirit of the Laws*. The division of government into three parts — legislative, executive, and judicial — seemed thoroughly sound to him; and through the king, the House of Lords, and the House of Commons, he thought that the interests of all classes of people were properly cared for.

Voltaire also spent a number of years in England. He was not opposed to absolute government so long as it served the interests of the people. He declared that he preferred to be ruled by one lion rather than by one hundred rats. Yet he



VOLTAIRE

was a keen and harsh critic of those powers that did not rule for the people's welfare. It has been said of him, "We owe half our liberty to that leering old mocker." It was said that he saw all the evil in the world but little of the good. He had no use for the Catholic Church as he saw it in France because he thought it stood in the way of progress. Though mistakenly thought of as an atheist, he did believe that there is a God, but did not think that after God had created the world He would bother with constant attention to the little everyday affairs of human beings.

Rousseau was interested in both society and politics. His most famous work was the *Social Contract*. It opens with the statement "Man was born free, but is now everywhere in chains." He held to its fullest extent the doctrine that government derives its powers from the consent of the governed. Though there was much to criticize in his own life, his influence on the times in which he lived and on later times was notable.

These and other men like them contributed to a notable work known as the *Encyclopedia*, which was published under the editorship of the Frenchman Diderot (dēd'rō'). This was meant to cover all the scientific and historical knowledge of the time; and the writers of many articles, not satisfied with merely telling the facts as they saw them, attacked what seemed to them the evils of their day. Thus the writers of the *Encyclopedia* had considerable influence on the thinking of the rather limited number of people who read their work.



ROUSSEAU

Do you suppose the writings of the French philosophers attracted more attention than anything new of a similar character would receive today? If only a few people in proportion to the whole population of France read the *Encyclopedia*, could its influence have been very great? Suppose you were a titled English landlord of about 1770—what do you think would have been your attitude toward the ideas advocated by the philosophers mentioned in this section?

215. Enlightened Despots Who Meant Well but Largely Failed.

—Some of the progressive thinking of John Locke and Voltaire made an impression upon rulers of the eighteenth century, and led to their being referred to as “enlightened despots” or “benevolent despots.” They really did want to do well by their people, though if they had to choose between being benevolent and being despotic, they probably would be despotic. They did not look upon the people themselves as having any share in what the monarch was trying to do. Among the benevolent despots would surely be Frederick the Great and Emperor Joseph II of Austria (1765–1790). Joseph’s mother, Maria Theresa, and Catherine the Great of Russia, in perhaps a less degree, might also belong there.

Joseph II looked upon Frederick as a sort of ideal monarch and wished to pattern his government after Frederick’s. He got rid

of serfdom in much of his territory, and encouraged religious freedom. He improved the courts and the law codes. He made the landholders pay taxes on the same principle as the bourgeois and the peasant classes. Yet he tried to make all his people too much alike. He wanted everybody to speak German, even in the provinces where it never had been commonly spoken.

Sometimes the enlightened despots went too fast for their people. The people often misunderstood them and were ungrateful rather than appreciative. So these enlightened despots rarely succeeded in lifting permanently the standard of their people. Even Joseph II suggested that he deserved the epitaph, "Here lies the man who with the best of intentions never succeeded in anything."

Would a people deserve to be called ungrateful if they did not support a monarch who was trying to reform them? Do the majority of the people today in any country always take the right side of disputed questions? If a king or president finds that the majority of his people do not agree with him about some policy, should he abandon that policy?

IDEAS TO STAY WITH US

European monarchs of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries generally wanted to rule as absolute sovereigns, and any means that would serve their purposes most of them felt justified in using.

Under the Stuart kings England saw the divine-right idea put into practice. James I, though he made himself unpopular, escaped disaster to himself. Charles I, however, got into a civil war, which was not completely ended until he himself went "to the block."

From 1649 to 1660 England had no king. A good and strong man, Oliver Cromwell, ruled the greater part of that period; but when he was gone, England was ready to take back the Stuart family.

The Restoration period, from 1660 to 1688, was marked by a return at first to religious narrowness and fast living. Charles II was careful not to go too far, but James II was overthrown by a revolution which brought William of Orange to the throne in England. The Bill of Rights of 1689 is one of the great liberty documents of English history.

William's coming to the throne brought England more closely in contact with politics on the continent. England now became the foremost opponent of France. As a result of the War of the Spanish Succession, the first break appeared in the French possessions in the New World.

The Act of Settlement brought German princes from Hanover to the English throne and thus led to a cabinet system in which the prime minister is the real head of the government.

For 131 years France was under the rule of two kings — Louis XIV and Louis XV. The former lived in great show and for a time won for himself the center of the stage in Europe. Under his successor the power of France went steadily down, and the government became steadily worse.

At the end of the seventeenth century Peter the Great of Russia tried to make his country western in customs, industries, and methods. He and his successors in the eighteenth century gave Russia much influence in the politics of Europe.

The seventeenth and eighteenth centuries also witnessed the coming together of many German states under the rule of Prussia. Greatest of the Prussian rulers was Frederick II, who raised his country to a place of leadership in Europe.

Austria, though ruling over peoples of many languages and races, succeeded in holding them together. Poland, however, under a foolishly weak government, could not defend itself against its neighbors.

In many respects the standard of morals and life among rich and poor in Europe in the eighteenth century was low. Government was too often corrupt and dishonest.

In England and France some intelligent people plead for better things. Some progress was made in learning and culture. A few great thinkers made notable scientific discoveries, and others achieved undying fame in literature, music, and other lines.

Philosophers and reformers, such as Locke, Montesquieu, Voltaire, and Rousseau, found numerous followers. Some monarchs tried as benevolent despots to improve the life of their people.

NAMES AND TERMS WE SHOULD UNDERSTAND

- | | | |
|-----------------------------|------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. Machiavelli | 11. Puritan Revolution | 22. Bill of Rights |
| 2. Divine right of kings | 12. Cavaliers | 23. Whigs |
| 3. James I | 13. Roundheads | 24. Tories |
| 4. Hampton Court Conference | 14. Oliver Cromwell | 25. Act of Settlement |
| 5. Charles I | 15. Rump Parliament | 26. Toleration Act |
| 6. Petition of Right | 16. Restoration | 27. Queen Anne |
| 7. Ship money | 17. Charles II | 28. The House of Han- |
| 8. John Hampden | 18. Dissenters | over |
| 9. Puritans | 19. Habeas Corpus | 29. Cabinet |
| 10. Long Parliament | 20. James II | 30. Walpole |
| | 21. William of Orange | 31. Louis XIV |

- | | | |
|--------------------------------------|----------------------|-------------------------|
| 32. Grand Monarque | 40. Molière | 51. John Milton |
| 33. "L'état, c'est moi" | 41. Goethe | 52. Peter the Great |
| 34. Versailles | 42. Opera | 53. Catherine II |
| 35. Colbert | 43. Oratorio | 54. Frederick the Great |
| 36. War of the Spanish
Succession | 44. Stradivarius | 55. Maria Theresa |
| 37. The Wesleys | 45. William Harvey | 56. Joseph II |
| 38. "After us the
deluge" | 46. Isaac Newton | 57. Kosciusko |
| 39. Estates (in
France) | 47. Van Dyck | 58. John Locke |
| | 48. Joshua Reynolds | 59. Voltaire |
| | 49. Christopher Wren | 60. Rousseau |
| | 50. John Bunyan | 61. Montesquieu |

DATES WORTH REMEMBERING

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1603 Accession of James I in Eng-
land | 1689 Bill of Rights |
| 1628 Petition of Right | 1707 Union of England and Scot-
land |
| 1642-1649 Civil War in England | 1643-1715 Reign of Louis XIV |
| 1660 The Restoration of the Stuarts
in England | 1713 Treaty of Utrecht |
| 1679 Habeas Corpus Act | 1689-1725 Reign of Peter the Great |
| 1688 "The Glorious Revolution" | 1740-1786 Reign of Frederick the
Great |

INTERESTING SUBJECTS YOU MAY LIKE TO KNOW ABOUT

Machiavelli and His Teachings
 The Hampton Court Conference
 Guy Fawkes Day and Its Observance
 Puritanism in Ideals and Life
 The Civil War between Charles I and Parliament
 Oliver Cromwell's Life and Personality
 The Story of the Revolution of 1688
 The Bill of Rights of 1689 and Its Importance
 William of Orange
 The Life of Louis XIV at Versailles
 The Methodist Revival
 The Plague and Fire in London
 Stories about Peter the Great
 Stories about Frederick the Great
 Maria Theresa
 The Life and Contributions of Isaac Newton
 The Life and Writings of Voltaire
 The Life and Writings of Rousseau
 The Life and Ideas of John Locke
 Joseph II as a Benevolent Despot
 Peasant Life in France in the Eighteenth Century
 Burdensome Taxes and Restrictions in Eighteenth-Century France

INTERESTING PROJECTS YOU MAY LIKE TO UNDERTAKE

1. Begin a comparative chart in which you will enter the dates of notable events in government, industry, and international relations of the leading nations of the world since 1600. Entries should be made point by point as later topics are taken up. Make the chart at least 16 by 20 inches in width and length.

DATE	U. S.	GREAT BRITAIN AND BRITISH EMPIRE	FRANCE	PRUSSIA AND GER- MANY	RUSSIA	AUS- TRIA	ITALY	OTHER EURO- PEAN COUN- TRIES	WEST- ERN ASIA AND AFRICA	CHINA AND JAPAN
1600										
1700										
1800										
1900										

2. Arrange a debate on one or more of the following subjects: Resolved, that the execution of Charles I was justifiable; Resolved, that a country is better off under a government carried on by well-meaning despots than under a democracy; Resolved, that the French philosophers of the eighteenth century did more for Europe than the monarchs did.

3. Dramatize one or more of the following: the trial of Charles I; a Cabinet meeting under Walpole; a session between Peter the Great and some of his nobles; a day at the court of Louis XIV; a conversation between Frederick the Great and Voltaire.

4. Sketch a map illustrating the partitions of Poland, showing its original territory and the various appropriations of it by Poland's neighbors.

5. Make a map of Europe showing the extent of territory of the various countries about 1750. On this map locate the chief cities of each European country of importance.

6. Make sketches or models of St. Paul's Cathedral; the equipment and dress of an eighteenth-century soldier.

7. Arrange a "Who Am I?" contest on historical characters mentioned in this unit.

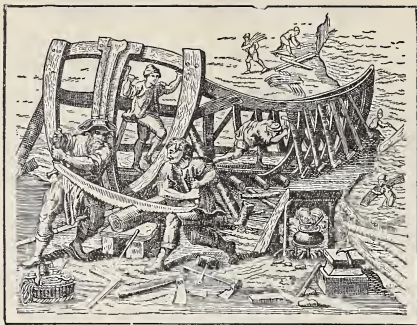
PLACES FOR FURTHER READING

Adams, *Growth of the French Nation*
 Cheyney, *Short History of England*, XIII-XVI
 Haaren and Poland, *Famous Men of Modern Times*
 Hayes, *Historical Development of Modern Europe*, VII, VIII, XI-XIV
 Robinson and Beard, *Development of Modern Europe*, Volume I, Chapters I, III-V, VII, VIII
 Robinson, *Readings in European History*
 Tuell and Hatch, *Selected Readings in English History*

Gardiner, *The First Two Stuarts and the Puritan Revolution*
 Hassall, *Louis XIV*
 Henderson, *A Short History of Germany*
 Johnson, *The Age of the Enlightened Despots*
 Lowell, *The Eve of the French Revolution*
 Morfill, *Poland*
 Morfill, *The Story of Russia*
 Morley, *Walpole*
 Robertson, *England under the Hanoverians*
 Schuyler, *Peter the Great*
 Trevelyan, *England under the Stuarts*
 Wakeman, *The Ascendancy of France*
 Young, *Frederick the Great*

Barr, *Friend Olivia*
 Barr, *The Lion's Whelp*
 Besant, *For Faith and Freedom*
 Blackmore, *Lorna Doone*
 Castle, *Beau Nash*
 Dix, *Hugh Gwyeth*
 Doyle, *Micah Clarke*
 Dumas, *The Black Tulip*
 Henty, *Cornet of Horse*
 Henty, *With Frederick the Great*
 Heyer, *The Great Roxhythe*
 Kelly, *The Trumpeter of Krakow*
 Porter, *Thaddeus of Warsaw*

Reade, *Peg Woffington*
 Sabatini, *Captain Blood*
 Scott, *Rob Roy*
 Scott, *The Cavalier*
 Seawell, *The Lively Adventures of Gavin Hamilton*
 Sheppard, *The Red Cravat*
 Sienkiewicz, *The Deluge*
 Stevenson, *David Balfour*
 Stevenson, *Kidnapped*
 Tarkington, *Monsieur Beaucaire*
 Thackeray, *Henry Esmond*
 Underwood, *The Whirlwind*



SHIPBUILDERS OF THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY

Would you suppose that boats put together in this way would stand the strain of a voyage across the ocean?

XI. THE OPENING OF NEW LANDS FOR TRADE AND FREEDOM

*To a wise man all the world's his soil:
It is not Italy, nor France, nor Europe,
That must bound me, if my fates call me forth.*

— JONSON

These all died in faith, not having received the promises but having seen them and greeted them from afar. — HEBREWS 11:13, Revised Version

We have already discovered that the interests of Europeans became too big for their comparatively small continent. As they sought new routes to the East, they opened up an entirely new part of the world—new to them at least. Trade was steadily developed over the new routes to the Old World and with the new continents to the west, and colonies were planted in some of these new lands. Let us turn back and trace the chief elements in the story of Europe's expansion outside of Europe until nearly the end of the eighteenth century.

Pointers for Our Study:

Why were Europeans interested in new trading posts and colonies?

What parts of the world did they find most suitable for these?

What ideas were common among European governments as to the way they should deal with their distant colonies?

How did wars in Europe affect colonial policies, and how in turn did colonial affairs react upon European conditions?

Why, after a notable victory on the part of England, did she lose some of her best colonial possessions?

In what ways was the setting up of the United States as independent a notable event in world history?

What did the Old World contribute to the development of the New, and what did the New World give to the Old?

216. Why Europeans Were Interested in Planting Colonies. — It has been said that “gospel, glory, and gold” tell the story. Very likely “gospel” really came third in practice, for so-called Christian nations assumed that no non-Christian peoples had any right to land which the Christian nations found and wanted. Moreover, just as our own motives are often mixed, so were those of the founders of colonies three or four centuries ago.

(1) Every live country wanted to *make money from colonies*. People expected to find in the colonies a market for goods made in the home country. They presumed that merchants and adventurers would get rich from trade in colonial products. Especially did some people hope that gold and silver would be discovered in abundance in the new lands, for more actual money was needed to carry on the increasing trade.

(2) Between 1500 and 1600 the people of the countries of *western Europe* — including England — thought that they were *overcrowded*. Why not let this surplus population find room in the New World? Perfectly desirable people discontented at home could try their luck across the Atlantic. A government could also send to distant colonies criminals, loafers, and ne’er-do-wells, who were a nuisance at home.

(3) Then as now some people enjoyed *adventure*. Some were soldiers out of a job. Others found a keen thrill in just seeing new things and people.

(4) A sincere *religious motive* took some Europeans to the New World. Persecuted people might hope to find in the New World the freedom of worship they did not then have at home. The Jesuit priests of France and Spain were anxious to convert the natives of the New World to the Catholic faith. Their labors and sufferings were often heroic.

(5) Side by side with religious freedom goes *political freedom*. Kings who practiced religious persecution might be expected to be

tyrannical in government. The people who founded the Massachusetts Bay Colony, for instance, were dissatisfied with both the religious policy and the arbitrary government of Charles I.

(6) *International rivalry* led to the planting of some colonies. If Spain could get rich out of her colonies, why couldn't England?

Later England's chief rival became France rather than Spain. Holland also was in the colonial game as a rival of Spain, Portugal, France, and England, at one time or another.

When would you say that a country is crowded? If you had lived in Europe in 1600, would you have been interested in distant colonies? Why?

In studying this unit make use of the maps on pages 331 and 427, and facing 424 and 434.



Paul's Photos

PIONEERS OF NEW FRANCE

This statue in Chicago shows the French missionary Father Marquette, with his companion, the explorer Joliet. An Indian looks at them with questioning wonder.

posts than for colonies, since few Europeans could go to those lands and make new homes. The New World was better for those who wanted to build new homes in a new country, for the people already living there were not very numerous.

The Demarcation Line drawn in 1494 (§ 175) gave to Spain Central America and the greater part of South America. Portugal had Brazil, and got the first start on the profitable trade of India and

217. Where Were Colonies or Trading Posts Planted? — Two kinds of regions beckoned to the ambitious and venture-some people of western Europe. One included the populous countries of Asia, some of whose products — spices, silk, and the like — were in great demand in western Europe. Such regions were better suited for trading

the East Indies. When Spain came into the Philippines, however, nobody offered any particular objection.

The Dutch turned their attention mainly to the East; and when they were at war with Spain, with which Portugal was for a while united, they helped themselves to a number of Portuguese colonies. The Dutch were the first to settle the Cape Colony at the southern end of Africa, and occupied two regions in the western hemisphere at one time or another — Dutch Guiana (gĭ ä'na) in South America, and what we now call New York, New Jersey, and Delaware.

Eight nations have laid claim to New World lands. Spain, Portugal, and Holland we have already mentioned. Greenland and Iceland were held by Denmark. The Swedes lost their colony on the Delaware River to the Dutch. Peter the Great sent a Danish sailor named Vitus Bering to explore the northwestern part of North America, and thus began Russia's

claim to Alaska. The best part of the North American continent, however, was left to the English and the French.

The French first came to the St. Lawrence Valley under Cartier (car tyä') in 1534. Seventy years later, when Henry IV was king, the first lasting French settlement was made at Port Royal, in what is now Nova Scotia. Soon after that (1608), Champlain founded Quebec, which became the capital of New France.

England was late in the race for colonies. Two knightly gentlemen, Humphrey Gilbert and Walter Raleigh (rə'li), were the first Englishmen to enter it. Gilbert tried to found a colony in Newfoundland, but without success. Raleigh sent a company to settle in a district which he named Virginia after England's popular queen. Though greatly disappointed when the colony disappeared, he declared, "I shall yet live to see it an English nation." Before his death a permanent settlement had been begun at Jamestown (1607). Portugal, France, and England all traded with the thickly-peopled land of India.



SAMUEL DE CHAMPLAIN

Locate in their proper time relations the facts mentioned in this and the following sections by referring to the time-graphs on pages 292, 341, and 372.

Can you explain why the Danes never acquired large New World possessions outside of Iceland and Greenland? Where did Vitus Bering leave his name on the map of the New World?

218. How Did European Countries Develop Their Colonies? —

“What is the use of having colonies if you can’t make any money out of them?” So any nation might have inquired. If colonies could not furnish gold and silver, they might supply timber, fur, foodstuffs, and the like, which the mother country could use. Further, “Why let any other country in on the profits to be made from our colonies?” So Spain tried to keep Englishmen and Dutchmen out of their possessions, and England tried to keep out Spaniards, Frenchmen, and Dutchmen. That was England’s chief motive in passing the Navigation Acts, which you must have heard of in your study of United States history — not purposely to harm her colonies.

The name *mercantile system* was given to some of the notions then held in regard to economics and colonies. A successful country should sell more to other countries than it bought from them, it was asserted. To use a common phrasing, there should be a “favorable balance of trade.” If a country paid more to other countries than it got from them, the balance was said to be “unfavorable”; and people thought such a situation was bad. Besides, the mercantilists believed that the most prosperous country was the one that had the most gold and silver. They failed to realize that merely piling up gold or silver is of little value. You have got to spend it sometime, if it is going to do you any good, and if you don’t buy what other countries have to sell, they will be less able to buy what you have to sell. Mistaken ideas on these subjects, held by supposedly wise business men of the time, did considerable harm.

To develop trade with a particular part of the world, charters were often granted to trading companies, giving them a monopoly of business with that section. Most famous of all the English trading companies was the British East India Company, chartered by Queen Elizabeth on the last day of the sixteenth century. It

later not only traded with but governed a considerable portion of India. Another was the Hudson's Bay Company, which traded over a vast territory in Canada. Hudson's Bay Company stores may still be seen in some of the cities of western Canada. The first English colonies planted along the Atlantic coast were under trading companies of which you surely know — the London Company and the Plymouth Company.

The Dutch have always been enterprising and successful as traders. They had their Dutch West India Company and their Dutch East India Company. The West India Company's work lasted long enough to make a considerable impression on the life of what is now New York, but the English took the colony in 1664. The Dutch East India enterprise was much more successful. Of this eastern empire enough remained up to 1942 — Java and several neighboring islands — so that only Great Britain had greater island possessions than the Dutch.

If a country pays gold to another country in exchange for its goods, has anything really happened except exchanging one thing for another? Why do you suppose so many people have the idea that the English Navigation Acts were intended directly to harm the English colonies?

219. The Struggle for the New World. — The attempt of European countries to divide up the New World resulted in two kinds of conflict — first, between the invading white people and the natives who were already there; and second, between one European nation and another which wanted the same territory. The "Indian" natives of the greater part of North and South America were in a comparatively backward stage of civilization. That was not true, however, in Mexico and Peru, where the Spanish conquerors found people who had made considerable headway socially and industrially.

The relations between the European invaders and the natives varied considerably. The Dutch dealt with them chiefly through trade, and usually got along peacefully with them. The English felt a sense of superiority to the Indians whom they met, and showed it. They had no more to do with them socially than was necessary. The early settlers of Plymouth and other places learned much about planting and hunting from the natives. William Penn and the Quakers tried hard to give the Indians a

square deal, and between them and the Indians there was very little trouble. Elsewhere there was seldom any love lost between English and Indians, and frontier settlements frequently felt the effects of the Indians' wrath.

The French came more closely in contact with the Indians than any other European people. They traded much with them, and some actually lived the same life as the Indians themselves. Among the French much was done to try to win the Indians to Christianity, but sometimes those efforts were not appreciated.

To a less degree this was true with the Spaniards, whose priests tried to help the Indians not only to know Christianity but to live better otherwise. The harshness of Spanish rulers did not prevent intermarriage between the Spanish and the Indians; and as a result many people of the western hemisphere have part Indian and part Spanish ancestry.

In the long run the white man was pretty sure to win a fight with the Indians. Occasionally some Indians would line up as allies with one party or the other of the whites. Champlain made the Algon'quin Indians friends of the French, but in so doing he antagonized the powerful tribe of the Iroquois', who were almost the only Indians with whom the English seemed to get along peacefully. In some of the wars between the English and French both sides made use of Indian allies.

Would it have been better for the whites to have tried harder to win the good will of the Indians? Can you explain the fact that the French seemed to get along with the Indians better than other peoples?

220. How European Conflicts Reached Other Continents. —

In the early years of European colonies in the New World the colonies were far enough apart so that they would not themselves have come into unpleasant contacts. The first conflicts in the New World between the English and the French or Spanish resulted from the rivalry of the mother countries in European affairs.

King William III's efforts to combat the aggressions of Louis XIV brought on war between the French in Canada and the English in New England. The American colonists called this King William's War (1689-1697) because he was on the throne. The next war (1702-1713) the Americans called Queen Anne's War, for a similar

reason. They were greatly interested in its outcome because French territories, such as Acadia, were passed over to the English when the Treaty of Utrecht was signed (1713). Forty years later came "King George's War" (1744-1748), which was really one phase of the War of the Austrian Succession. Up to the middle of the eighteenth century European countries dragged their colonies into war three times without causing any lasting change, except in one instance.

Does the fact that the American colonists referred to these wars by the names of English monarchs suggest that they looked upon them as European struggles?

221. The World-Wide Victory of the English. — The last of the great series of world wars of the eighteenth century began in the New World before there was fighting in the Old. As the historian Carlyle said somewhat extravagantly, "A shot fired in the woods of North America drenched all Europe in blood." It was in a way the first great world war. The English colonists in North America called this the French and Indian War. It became a part of the Seven Years' War.

In the seventeenth century French explorers went west along the Great Lakes and into the Mississippi Valley. La Salle, most famous among them, made his way south clear to the mouth of the Mississippi, claimed all the land drained by that river for his master, the king of France, and named it after him, "Louisiana" (1682). The French planted forts at many strategic points — Niagara and Detroit, for instance — and planned to set up another string of forts down the Ohio River. They built Fort Duquesne (du kăn') at the junction of the Allegheny and Monongahela rivers, the most important point in that whole section. The English sent General Braddock to try to drive out the French, but Braddock was killed and his troops badly defeated (1755).

"New France" then looked much more imposing on the map of North America than did the English territories which hugged the Atlantic coast; but in all the vast territories claimed by the French less than 100,000 white people lived. The English colonies had more than 1,200,000; but these colonies had not learned how to work together. Yet the French faced a still more dangerous weakness in trying to hold their far-reaching territory with so few men,

while the solidly founded English colonies had not moved into the interior any faster than they were ready to go.

By 1756 the European side of the struggle was about ready to get under way. At first the war went poorly for England; but when the great William Pitt became Secretary for War, what a change! With the help of money from England, Frederick of

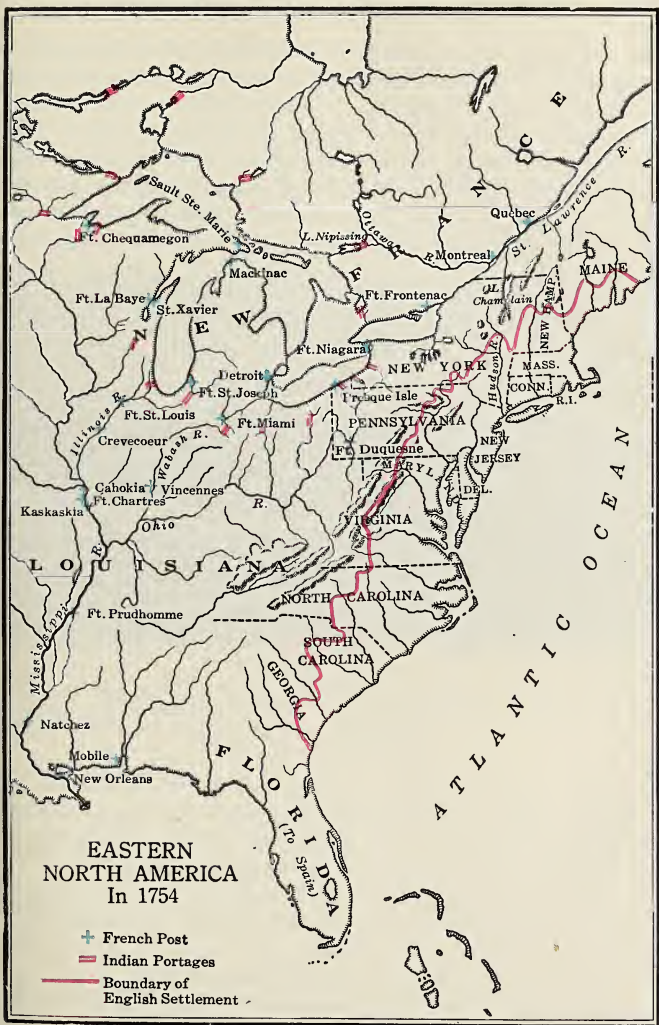


LA SALLE CLAIMING LOUISIANA

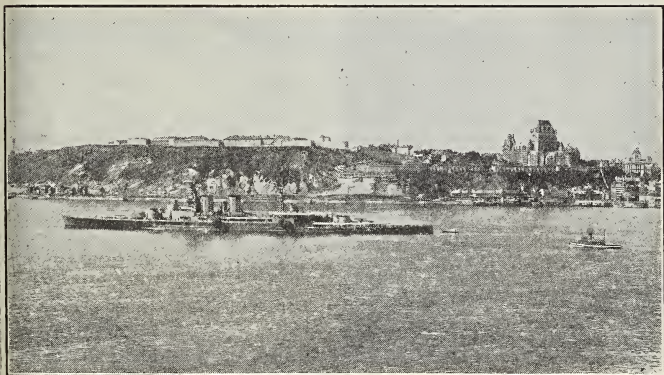
This copy of a painting by Marchand shows the explorer proclaiming the taking of the Mississippi Valley in the name of his sovereign, Louis XIV.

Prussia defended himself on the continent, and under the capable generals whom Pitt sent to North America the French were soon getting the worst of it there.

When General Forbes approached Fort Duquesne, the French abandoned the place. The English renamed it Fort Pitt after their great statesman, and a little later the village around the fort became Pittsburgh. The decisive struggle in the New World was for the possession of Quebec'. The French cause was lost when General Wolfe's men took Quebec (1759), although the war was not over until four years later.



Clear over on the other side of the world another mighty struggle was taking place. Portuguese and Dutch were interested in India, but they were satisfied with a few trading posts and made little effort to rule any part of the country. India was far from united. Native princes called *nawabs* (nā'wābs), or *nabobs*, ruled different sections and were frequently at war with one another. If some European could make allies of these native princes or bring them under his power, he might control a considerable part of



THE QUEBEC OF TODAY

Courtesy Canadian Pacific Railway

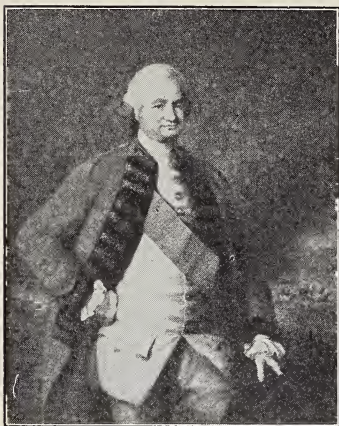
The British cruiser *Hood*, which went down in 1941, lies at anchor in the St. Lawrence. Toward the right of the picture is the famous Château Frontenac, named after one of Canada's most capable French governors.

the country. Toward the middle of the eighteenth century, Dupleix (duplêx'), a French agent, went out to India, and saw the opportunity. With the support of native troops, known as *se'poys*, and some of the native princes he gained considerable power in and around Madras' in the southeastern part of India.

England's first centers of interest were in Bombay and in the district of Bengal' around the mouth of the Gan'ges, where the great city of Calcut'ta stands today. Employed as a clerk under the British East India Company was the man to whom England really owes her Indian empire today — Robert Clive. He seems to have recognized the headway Dupleix was making and what

had to be done to thwart him. So he used some of Dupleix's own methods with even greater success.

On returning to India after a vacation in England (1756), Clive discovered that the Nawab of Bengal had taken advantage of his absence to undermine British authority there. The performance which most provoked Clive was that of the notorious "Black



ROBERT CLIVE

Among Britain's empire-builders few, if any, deserve more credit than he.

Hole" of Calcutta. One hundred and forty-six Englishmen were put into a small dungeon over night. In the morning only twenty-three were found alive. Clive proceeded to take vengeance on the Nawab who was responsible for this and defeated him overwhelmingly in the famous battle of Plas'-sey (1757), thus establishing English leadership in all that part of India.

Peace was made at Paris in 1763. The French agreed not to use military force in India, but did keep a few trading posts. The territories they had claimed west of the Mississippi

River they gave over to Spain, and those which they held east of the Mississippi were turned over to England along with Canada. French dominion in North America was ended. Two little islands in the ocean not far from Newfoundland and a very few others in the West Indies, with French Guiana in South America, were all that was left. English ideals of government and law were to prevail in eastern North America instead of French absolutism. England was now the greatest colonial power in the world.

Make a list of problems that would confront European generals and leaders in a thickly settled territory such as India, and another list of problems that would have to be faced by European leaders in a new, sparsely settled region like North America. Would you think one set

of problems any harder to solve than the other? Is it likely that the English people had a greater genius for colonizing than the French?

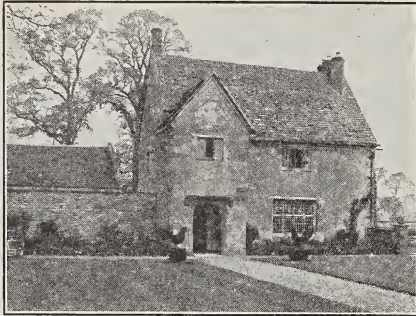
222. England and Her North American Colonies. — Winning a war sometimes brings more problems than losing it. So it was with England after 1763. What was she to do with the new empire which she had won in North America? The French colonists in Canada had never cared anything about taking part in



their own government, and, being used to taking orders, were quiet under a new flag. The trouble arose in the colonies that had been English all the time.

The leaders of the English colonies along the Atlantic coast would have been leaders anywhere, whether in old England, New England, or Virginia. Probably there was a higher average of intelligence and more enterprise and independence among them than among the mass of the people at home. The people of other

nationalities — Germans, French Huguenots, Irish, Dutch, and Swedes — who were fairly numerous in some sections of the English colonies, were also of good quality. Nevertheless, it was to England that the people mainly traced their government and their



Associated British Railways, Inc.

SULGRAVE MANOR

This is the English home of the ancestors of George Washington.

ideas of liberty; and because they were such high-grade Englishmen, they were not willing to accept the low-grade leadership that prevailed in England for a while after 1763.

Geography had considerable to do with the development of an independent frame of mind. More than 3000 miles of ocean meant in 1763 several

weeks of separation, as far as communication was concerned. Life in a new land under those conditions inevitably grew to be different in customs and thinking.

The political leaders of England at that time, as well as King George III, who did not intend to be a figurehead king, did not realize how their American "subjects" felt about things. England had spent much money in protecting the colonies from French and Indian attacks. Why shouldn't the colonies pay some of the bills? Since Parliament, so its leaders argued, had authority over the entire empire, it had a perfect right to collect revenues in any suitable way.

The Englishmen of the colonies, however, did not take kindly to such ideas. They thought they were perfectly able to look out for themselves, and did not realize how much they really had depended upon the mother country for military and naval protection. Most of the time before George III came to the throne the colonies had been allowed to do about as they pleased and to be governed by their own laws rather than those of Parliament. Now

they were in no mood to let go any part of the self-government which they enjoyed.

When Parliament in 1765 passed the Stamp Act, requiring the use of stamped paper for legal documents, newspapers, and other purposes, violent objection was offered all through the colonies. The same thing was true two years later (1767) when a series of taxes was provided on glass, paper, paint, and tea. Parliament repealed the Stamp Act the year after it was passed, and later repealed the other taxes, except a small tax on tea, which was kept to show that Parliament had the right to levy taxes. But the colonies would neither pay the tax nor use the tea.

"Taxation without representation is tyranny" was the Americans' slogan. "We colonists are not represented in Parliament, and therefore Parliament has no right to levy taxes on us," they said in effect. "Only our own assemblies may do that." Because of their distance from the mother country, the colonists did not expect to be represented in Parliament. On the other side it was asserted that the English Parliament represented all Englishmen anywhere, so that the colonies were "virtually" represented, even though they did not actually elect anybody to the House of Commons. England's ablest statesmen, such as William Pitt, saw the folly of trying to force the colonies to accept a policy which they did not believe to be right; but Pitt and those who felt as he did were not running the English government just then.

If a way to levy a tax could have been found that did not conflict with the colonists' theory of representation, could they have been reasonably asked to help to pay the expenses of the Seven Years' War? Great Britain does not ask her colonies today to pay taxes for the support of the British navy. Is the situation any different from what it was with her American colonies in 1770?

223. Fighting for English Rights and Then for Independence. — An occurrence in Boston Harbor on the night of December 16, 1773, was like the spark which sets off dynamite. A number of Bostonians, dressed as Indians, went on board ships of the East India Company and threw into the water the cargoes of tea. This enraged the English leaders — and no wonder! Parliament passed a series of laws, which the colonists termed the "Intolerable Acts," intended to enforce British authority in the colonies.

One thing rapidly led to another. At the suggestion of Virginia, a Continental Congress, with representatives from twelve colonies, assembled in Philadelphia (1774) and drew up a declaration setting forth the rights which its members believed English colonists justly possessed. Boycotts were planned against British goods. Military stores were collected here and there.

The first actual clash in arms occurred at Lexington and Concord, in Massachusetts, April 19, 1775. Colonial soldiers encamped around Boston, and in less than a year the British troops left that city. A second Continental Congress met at Philadelphia in May, 1775, and, because there was no one else to do it, proceeded to take charge of the general interests of the colonies. One of its early acts, and one of its wisest, was to choose as commander of the colonial troops George Washington, of Virginia. Without Washington it is hard to see how the colonial cause could have been successful.

At first Americans claimed to be fighting simply for their rights as Englishmen. Nothing much was said — publicly at least — about separating from England. But as the British leaders would make no concessions, a feeling gradually grew among the colonists that independence was the only way to assure them their rights. On July 4, 1776, a Declaration of Independence was adopted by the Continental Congress. It included a statement of the beliefs which its members held, some of which John Locke and Rousseau would have easily recognized. Thomas Jefferson, who put on paper most of this Declaration of Independence, knew their writings well.

If you had lived in Philadelphia in 1775, how do you think you would have felt about the controversy between the colonies and the English government? If you had been an official of the British government at the time, how would you have been likely to feel about the Boston Tea Party?

224. Independence Gained. — It was one thing to declare independence; it was another thing to get it. In some parts of the South and around New York and Philadelphia, many called *Loyalists* or *Tories* thought the grievances of the colonists were not worth going to war about. If the American Revolution had not succeeded, we might still regard the Declaration of Independ-



© J. L. G. Ferris

WRITING THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

The man standing, pen in hand, is Thomas Jefferson. He has just handed the written sheets to Benjamin Franklin, who is reading them to John Adams. These were the three important members of the committee that prepared the Declaration.

ence as a great document in the story of human liberty. But if the Americans had not made good on the Declaration, it would have simply been one of the things mentioned in history books as a defense for a lost cause.

The Continental Congress hoped that some European governments might assist the Americans or that some people would gamble on lending money to the Americans. Benjamin Franklin, sent to Paris to represent the Americans, made himself immensely popular with the French people. At first Louis XVI, who was now king, was not anxious to get into another war, which, of course, would put France still further "in the red." But Frenchmen hoped to get back at England for the losses she had made France suffer in the Seven Years' War. Finally, after a British force sent south from Canada was surrounded and captured at Saratoga, New York (October 17, 1777), the French government concluded that it was safe to come out openly in aid of the American cause. So in February, 1778, a treaty of alliance was drawn up between France and the new United States of America, and both men and money were promised to help the Americans in the war. A little later both Holland and Spain, for reasons of their own, also were at war with Great Britain, so that she had four enemies at the same time.

For a time things had not gone any too well with Washington and his American troops. The British, after leaving Boston, forced him out of New York (1776), and the next year (1777) occupied Philadelphia. Later they also overran a part of the southern states. But suddenly the whole situation changed. The British general Cornwallis took his forces to Yorktown, in Virginia. A French fleet blocked Chesapeake Bay, so that reinforcements Cornwallis wanted could not reach him. On October 19, 1781, he surrendered to General Washington. This was enough. The English people were getting tired of the war, and there was no desire to press it any further.

The British government agreed to surprisingly generous terms of peace. The independence of the United States was recognized, with a territory including all the land east of the Mississippi River and south of Canada, except the province of Florida, which was given over to Spain. The final treaty of peace was signed

at Paris, in September, 1783. The United States of America, separated from their former British associations, were now "on their own."



THE SURRENDER AT YORKTOWN

Wide World

General Washington with Lafayette at his side receives the submission of the British army. General Cornwallis, you remember, was ill and could not be present in person.

Read the first part of the Declaration of Independence again and see what theories of government it set forth. Would the independence of the United States have been gained without the help of France? There is a story that in the World War the American General Pershing laid a wreath on the tomb of the Frenchman Lafayette with the words, "Lafayette, we are here." Probably the story is not exactly true; but if it were, what would be the significance of that remark?

Look again at the maps facing page 434 and notice how the colors change. Do you suppose any other rulers than those of France and Great Britain were interested in the controversy between the British government and the American colonies?

225. An Experiment in Self-Government. — What would the Americans do with their independence now that they had it?

Some had thought that the states would either be picked up by some stronger power or would of their own accord seek an alliance with one. A committee authorized by the Continental Congress had drawn up a kind of constitution for the United States, which was presented to the states for their consideration in 1777 under the name of the *Articles of Confederation*. Four years dragged on before it was adopted by all the states. Business was bad; the states were jealous of each other; nobody, under the Articles of Confederation, had power to do anything to make the country really respected.

But the new nation proved to have enough courage, genius, and good luck to get the kind of government it needed. Representatives from all but one of the thirteen states met at Philadelphia in 1787 to try to revise the Articles of Confederation. After about four months of discussion, what was left of the Convention signed a new Constitution and submitted it to the states. After bitter struggles in some states, eleven of them agreed to it; and a new government was set in motion in April, 1789. The other two states held out some months longer.

Two new things in particular characterized this government. First, it was a real *federal* government. The original states continued to have all the powers they needed in governing their local affairs; but at the same time enough authority was given to the central government so that it could act with firmness and dignity. In the second place, the government was declared to be established by the people themselves. It was not at first as democratic as we might think; but at least it rested on the idea of self-government by representatives of the people. That Americans had George Washington to choose as their first President was a piece of great good fortune. His wise leadership was invaluable.

Both the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution of the United States of America have served as ideals and models for other peoples in both the New World and the Old. Here was a government by the people which turned out to be a success. Could not other people similarly govern themselves? Here was a nation which had set itself free from its European bonds. Might not other peoples try to get rid of tyrannical rulers far worse than George III? American independence and the American Constitution are two great factors in world history.

Were conditions more favorable to the United States at the time of the adoption of the Constitution than they might have been to a European people who tried to set up a strong and free government? Have all the nations which have imitated the principles and Constitution of the United States been correspondingly successful?

226. What the Old World Gave to the New. — When Europeans traded with anybody they sold ideas as well as goods. European dress, European personal qualities, European social life, were in every case different from those of the lands to which European civilization was carried, whether lands with an old civilization of their own or lands inhabited by peoples who had never outgrown the simple ways of early man. Sometimes European customs and ideas were welcome; sometimes the native peoples thought their own ways were better and preferred to keep on as they had been living. When Europeans — especially Englishmen — went out to make *homes* in new lands, they carried with them both what Europeans had preserved from ancient civilizations and what they had built up for themselves during several centuries of growth.

Wherever Europeans settled they carried their language. In South America it was Spanish and Portuguese; in North America it was Spanish where Spaniards ruled, French where French ruled, and English where English people lived. So it was with religion. Go into the province of Quebec today, and though it has been under English rule well toward two centuries, you find the French language and the Catholic faith almost everywhere. In the Spanish and Portuguese territories most people are Catholics to this day. Protestant denominations of many kinds, however, led in the English colonies, even in the one itself founded by Catholics — Maryland.

So it was, too, with political ideals and forms of government. Europe sent to its colonies the systems of law which it knew in the Old World. Today in the states and colonies whose long-time traditions are English, the English common law underlies their legal practices. In countries with French and Spanish ancestry, however, the legal systems go back to the old Roman law, which in turn came down from at least as far back as the time of Justinian.

Spain and France had an absolute government at home. They set up absolute rule in their colonies, and there is little sign that



British
 United States
 Spanish
 Russian
 French
 Danish

COLONIAL CLAIMS IN THE NEW WORLD.

their colonists expected or wanted anything else. In the English colonies, however, the people claimed all the freedom that English people had at home. The idea of emphasizing three departments of government — legislative, executive, and judicial — was transplanted to the New World from England, and colonial Englishmen sometimes cherished government by representatives even more ardently than Englishmen at home.

What religious belief or practice does the average person of today adhere to — one that he has inherited through his parents or one that he has deliberately chosen for himself?

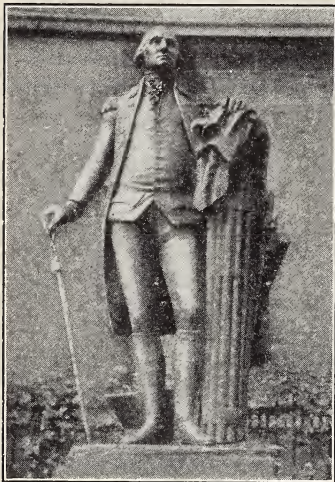
227. What the New World Gave to the Old. — From the New World came many products to enter into Europe's business and everyday life. Gold and silver were first in mind when Europe looked toward the New World, and Spain found much of both in Mexico and Peru. The potato — "the poor man's bread," it has been called — became immensely popular in Europe. The Irish took to it so well that we even call white potatoes Irish potatoes; but Germany and Austria came to depend upon them as much as the Emerald Isle. "Indian corn" did not make the same headway in Europe, because much of Europe did not have the hot days and nights which make it do best. Tobacco found a ready market in Europe¹ — so some would say that the New World contributed at least one vice to the Old. Many valuable woods, including such expensive kinds as mahogany and rosewood, came from the New World; and Europeans began to wear many more furs.

With all these new products the people of Europe could live more luxuriously — that is, those who had the money to pay for them. Many merchants became rich out of trade in wool, fish, and other articles of commerce which Asia and the New World provided. Besides, here were new markets for European goods. Sometimes people indulged in just as wild and reckless speculation in commercial enterprises as any stock-gamblers of recent times.

The opening of the New World also widened greatly the knowledge and interests of Europeans. Geography meant much more to them now.

¹ You may have heard the story of its being introduced in England by Walter Raleigh in the time of Queen Elizabeth and of the servant who saw Raleigh smoking and threw a bucket of water on him because he thought Raleigh was on fire. James I tried his best to get people to let tobacco alone, but without success.

Finally, when the new independent United States of America came into being, the New World gave the Old a remarkable example



WASHINGTON'S STATUE IN LONDON

of successful government by the people. Here was a country which, whether it lived up to it or not, was built on the ideal of democracy. It also gave the first example on a large scale of a *federal* government. Democracies and federal governments have not always been successful, but in many cases they never would even have been tried if it had not been for the example of the United States of America.

Make a list of important articles or features in the life of the New World today which come from the Old World and another list of articles or features which the Old World gets from the New. Which group seems to you more important? What European goods might have been most readily sold in the New World during early colonial times?

Beyond the ocean, lands and wealth ; beyond the ocean, life anew ;
Beyond the ocean, toil and want, and pain and death for not a few.
So varied was the call that came ; but Europe heard its every tone.
Sails swept the seas ; new homes and trade in every clime made Europe known.

Beyond the ocean, strife and blood, as flag with flag in war engaged ;
Spanish and French and Portuguese and Dutch and English conflict waged.

Then when afar the Union Jack in triumph waved o'er land and sea,
Once more men learned that Englishmen in any land dared to be free.
A New World might the Old World serve with Nature's gifts of crops and gold ;
But Old World speech and dress and laws men used amid scenes new and old.

IDEAS TO STAY WITH US

Many motives attracted Europeans to the newly discovered lands, some praiseworthy and some selfish. Trade, however, was the chief reason for interest in Asia and the East Indies.

Eight nations at one time or another had a part in the opening of the New World. Spain and Portugal in South America, and Spain, France, and England in North America were the leaders. In Asiatic trade Portugal, Holland, and England had the most prominent place.

Every European country thought its colonies should be a source of profit for the mother country. From them it planned to get raw materials for manufacture, and expected to sell in them the products of the home country, keeping other nations out.

In the New World the relation of whites with natives was sometimes pleasant and sometimes bitter. The French and Spanish mingled with the Indians more closely than the English did.

Wars between European countries in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries were almost sure to involve their colonies. The final struggle for mastery in North America, however, between England and France started with a dispute over the title to the upper Ohio Valley. This conflict became a part of the important Seven Years' War in Europe.

Out of this long series of wars the English gained the most. The treaty of Paris in 1763, which ended the Seven Years' War, put the French off the continent of North America and also recognized England as the chief power in India.

Though England's treatment of her North American colonies was more lenient than that of any other European country toward its colonies, the differences between the English king and Parliament and the leaders of the colonies finally turned into war, which ended with another treaty of Paris in 1783. This recognized the independence of the United States of America.

Both the New World and Old contributed to the improvement of each other. The New World gave the Old new products, new interests, new routes of trade, and in the case of the United States an example of democratic federal government on a large scale.

NAMES AND TERMS WE SHOULD UNDERSTAND

- | | |
|------------------------|----------------------|
| 1. Vitus Bering | 5. Navigation Acts |
| 2. Cartier | 6. Mercantile system |
| 3. Samuel de Champlain | 7. Balance of trade |
| 4. Walter Raleigh | 8. Trading companies |

- | | |
|-------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 9. British East India Company | 23. George III |
| 10. Hudson's Bay Company | 24. Stamp Act |
| 11. Dutch East India Company | 25. Representation |
| 12. Treaty of Utrecht | 26. Boston Tea Party |
| 13. French and Indian War | 27. Continental Congress |
| 14. La Salle | 28. George Washington |
| 15. Fort Duquesne | 29. Declaration of Independence |
| 16. William Pitt | 30. Thomas Jefferson |
| 17. Dupleix | 31. Loyalists |
| 18. Sepoys | 32. Benjamin Franklin |
| 19. Robert Clive | 33. French Alliance |
| 20. Black Hole of Calcutta | 34. Treaty of Paris, 1783 |
| 21. Plassey | 35. Articles of Confederation |
| 22. Treaty of Paris, 1763 | 36. Constitution (United States) |

DATES WORTH REMEMBERING

- 1534 Discovery of St. Lawrence River
- 1607 Founding of Jamestown
- 1608 Founding of Quebec
- 1620 Settlement of Plymouth
- 1664 British acquisition of New York
- 1713 Peace of Utrecht
- 1756-63 Seven Years' War
- 1776 Declaration of Independence
- 1783 Peace of Paris, ending the American Revolution
- 1787 Constitutional Convention at Philadelphia
- 1789 Launching of the United States government under the Constitution

INTERESTING SUBJECTS YOU MAY LIKE TO KNOW ABOUT

- The British East India Company
- The Hudson's Bay Company
- British Colonies in the New World outside the Mainland of North America
- Famous Names in the Story of New France
- Famous Names in the Spanish Conquest of the New World
- The Extent to Which Religion Was a Factor in Settling the New World
- The Story of Robert Clive
- Our Neighborhood in Colonial Times
- Wolfe and His Capture of Quebec
- George Washington as a Character in World History
- Benjamin Franklin as a Man and as a World Character
- The Making of the Peace Treaty of 1783
- Loyalists in the American Revolution
- The Mercantile System and What Was Wrong with It
- John Law and the Mississippi Bubble

INTERESTING PROJECTS YOU MAY LIKE TO UNDERTAKE

1. Make a map of the world showing regions colonized or claimed by European countries. Indicate by special colors or symbols the regions in which the various nations established trading posts or colonies.

2. Hold a discussion in a group of English people who are thinking of coming to settle in North America.

3. Conduct an imaginary dialogue among the kings of England, France, and Spain about 1690 in regard to the reasons for having colonies and the best way to administer them.

4. Arrange an interview between Henry Hudson and an Indian chief, or Hernando Cortez and some Aztecs.

5. Make sketches, models, or plans, showing some of the following: the *Mayflower* or some other boat carrying settlers for a new colony in America; an eighteenth-century fort, *e.g.* Fort Pitt or Fort Ticonderoga; native and European troops and equipment in India in the eighteenth century; a slave vessel.

6. Make a map showing eastern North America as it was in 1763. Name important bodies of water; notable towns, like New Orleans, Pittsburgh, New York, Boston, Philadelphia, Charleston, Montreal, Quebec, Halifax, Albany, Baltimore, Savannah, Detroit; and indicate also the location of a few outstanding battles of the American Revolution.

7. Make a map of North America, showing territorial changes made by the treaty of Utrecht and the treaties of Paris of 1763 and 1783, and indicating important bodies of water and especially notable towns. Include at least those mentioned in the previous project and Mexico City, Havana, St. Augustine, Santa Fe, and the like.

8. Make a map of India, showing important geographical features, sections of the country, trading posts, and regions where different European powers claimed territory or were otherwise active.

9. Arrange a debate or argumentative conversation on one or both of the following questions: Were the acts of Parliament with reference to colonial industry and commerce really disadvantageous to the colonies? Was the American Revolution in a real sense a sort of civil war? How should Englishmen and Americans think of the Revolution today?

10. Arrange a discussion between two Bostonians, a "Loyalist" and a "Patriot," about 1774, regarding their grievances against the British government.

11. Arrange a discussion in either an English family group or an American family group involving the Boston Tea Party, the battle of Bunker Hill, the Declaration of Independence, the alliance between France and the United States, or the surrender of Cornwallis.

12. Hold a session of the Continental Congress, discussing the Declaration of Independence, or a session of the Philadelphia Constitutional Convention of 1787.

13. Continue your Chart of Trends in World Progress.

PLACES FOR FURTHER READING

Carman, *Social and Economic History of the United States*, Volume I, Chapters I-V

Cheyney, *European Background of American History*, VIII

Day, *History of Commerce*, 161-172

Gillespie, *History of Europe*, IV, XVIII

Hayes, *Political and Social History of Modern Europe*, IX, X

Knight, Barnes, and Flugel, *Economic History of Europe in Modern Times* 263-314

Robinson, *The Development of Modern Europe*, V, VI

Webster, *General History of Commerce*, XIV-XVIII

Wells, *Outline of History*, 826-853

Cheyney, *Short History of England*

Howard, *Preliminaries of the Revolution*

Muir, *The Expansion of Europe*

Munro, *Crusaders of New France*

Parkman, *Pioneers of France in the New World*

Robinson, *Readings in European History*

Trevelyan, *American Revolution*

Van Loon, *The Golden Book of the Old Dutch Navigators*

Altsheler, *The Sun of Quebec*

Atherton, *The Conqueror*

Bailey, *The Gentleman Adventurer*

Catherwood, *The Story of Tonty*

Cooper, *The Last of the Mohicans*

Ford, *Janice Meredith*

Haggard, *Montezuma's Daughter*

Henty, *With Clive in India*

Henty, *With Wolfe in Canada*

Johnson, *Croatan*

Johnston, *Prisoners of Hope*

Johnston, *To Have and to Hold*

Knipe, *A Maid of Old Manhattan*

MacGregor, *A Gentleman Adventurer*

McNeil, *Tonty of the Iron Hand*

Parker, *The Power and the Glory*

Parker, *The Seats of the Mighty*

Schultz, *Rising Wolf*

Singmaster, *The Long Journey*

Smith, *The Doom Trail*

Strang, *In Clive's Command*

Tomlinson, *The Young Rangers*

Van Schaick, *The Girl at Big Loon Post*

Van Schaick, *The Son of the Otter*



THE BOURBON FLAG AND THE TRICOLOR

The white flag of the French monarchs gave way in the days of the Revolution to the Tricolor, which is today the emblem of France — red, white, and blue, the same colors as those of the United States and Great Britain. Bourbon claimants to the French throne, however, could not forget the flag which symbolized the former power of their family.

XII. HOW THE FRENCH REVOLUTION AND NAPOLEON CHANGED EUROPE AND THE WORLD

A high class without duties to do is like a tree planted on a precipice from which all the earth has been crumbling. — CARLYLE

The tree of liberty must be refreshed from time to time with the blood of patriots and tyrants. — JEFFERSON

Volumes have been written about that tremendous overturn which we call the French Revolution. The whole story of Europe in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, and to a considerable degree the story of other continents, turned in large measure on its outcome. The "benevolent despots" tried to reform their kingdoms themselves, but without great success. In France, the people tried and partly succeeded, though none of those who were responsible for starting the Revolution had any idea of the extent to which it would shake the world.

Pointers for Our Study:

How and why did this Revolution come about after people had submitted to tyranny for so many years?

Through what stages did the Revolution pass?

What impressions did the Revolution make on other peoples and other monarchs?

How did Napoleon Bonaparte use his great opportunity, and what points of strength and weakness did he display?

How was the map of Europe remade after his downfall?

What permanent changes in Europe and the world came as a result of this extraordinary period?

228. Conditions in France Responsible for the Revolution.—When discussing “The Eighteenth Century at Its Worst,” we noticed that in France and other countries conditions existed which we should hardly suppose any civilized people would stand for. Thomas Jefferson, while living in Paris as the United States minister to France, wrote to a friend in the United States the following statement about conditions in France :

“The people are ground to powder by the vices of the form of government. Of twenty millions of people supposed to be in France, I am of the opinion there are nineteen millions more wretched, more accursed in every circumstance of human existence, than the most conspicuously wretched individual of the whole United States.”

Jefferson had not visited many other countries ; if he had, he might have realized that with all the distress in France, things might still be worse — and were, in many places in Europe and other continents ! Moreover, Jefferson did not realize exactly how Americans lived everywhere, especially on the frontier. But they were out there by their own choice ; nobody made them go.

Yet here were these facts. Out of a population of 24,000,000 or more, only 1,000,000 had any social or political rights worth talking about. The first two “estates” — the clergy and the nobles — owned most of the land and had most of the special privileges. Feudal taxes and other burdens still rested heavily upon the peasants.

The king lived in luxury at Versailles. Flocks of attendants and flunkies looked after his slightest whim, and the public treasury supported in luxury soldiers and courtiers who did nothing at all to earn what was spent on them. Graft, inefficiency, and everything else one might think of in bad government were almost uncontrolled.

But why did the people put up with this kind of thing ? Well, many had never known anything better and did not suppose anything better was possible. Others, who knew that they were not well off, had no one to lead them. Indeed, if anyone dared to write, print, or say anything reflecting upon the government, he might suddenly find himself in the Bastille (*bas tēl'*) or some other uncomfortable place.

Were the conditions in England before Charles I was executed or before James II was driven out as bad as those existing in France about

1775? The Frenchman Talleyrand said, a number of years later, "One who would like to know how pleasant life can be should have lived in France before the Revolution." Can you reconcile this statement with Jefferson's opinion quoted in this section?

229. Revolutionary Ideas and Influences. — Yet some did dare to suggest that things might be improved. The *Encyclopedia*, prepared by Diderot and his associates, helped to drive that fact home to the small number who read it. Voltaire made cutting comments on the Church and other institutions in France. Rousseau taught that there were far better ways for men to live in association with one another. Frenchmen could learn from English history that, when the majority of the English people really did not like the way they were governed, they got their government changed. Maybe that might happen even in France. But how?

Another influence that had some weight with the people of France was the success of the American Revolution. Americans had the nerve to make war upon the mightiest power of Europe in behalf of what they considered their rights, and with the help of France won their independence. Might France also have a government founded on the wishes of the people? Lafayette and other Frenchmen who served in America were usually much impressed with what they saw and went back home kindly disposed toward an effort to set up a free government in France.

In their struggle for the defense of their rights and for independence, did the Americans have any background which was lacking in France? If you were a French merchant in 1775 and were able to "keep your head above water" in business, would it have been easier for you to submit to conditions as they were or to work actively for a change?

230. King Louis XVI and His Queen. — It was just too bad for Louis XVI that he came to the throne when he did. Why should he, who really did want to do the right thing by his people, have to be the sufferer for the sins of his predecessors? Well, maybe you know what the Second Commandment says about "visiting the iniquity of the fathers upon the children unto the third and fourth generation." The two kings before him had "sown the wind," and he "reaped the whirlwind."

"The time is out of joint; — Oh, cursed spite!
That ever I was born to set it right."

So might Louis XVI have well said. Besides, he did not know how to set it right; or if he did, he lacked the backbone to go through with the program.

Coming to the throne in 1774 as a young man who never had to worry about where money was coming from, he could not



MARIE ANTOINETTE

The Queen's love for finery and display is well indicated in this picture of her.

understand how his subjects might feel, whose chief concern was how they were going to live the next day. This was also true of his queen, Marie Antoinette, the daughter of Maria Theresa of Austria. She was accused of asking, "Why don't they eat cake?" when told that the people were short of bread — though some think she did not mean what we call cake. Austria had so much of the time been an enemy of France that the French people still had a suspicion of anything Austrian. They sometimes called the queen "the Austrian woman," and, blaming her for a considerable part of France's debt, named her "Madame Deficit."

France needed a Louis IX or Henry IV; instead it had a well-meaning young man, with an extravagant wife, in a job far too big for him.

If you had been in the place of Louis XVI, would you have done any better? Point out other cases when a ruler suffered unpopularity or worse for something for which he was not to blame.

231. Reforms Needed but Not Made. — Louis began well by appointing as his first Minister of Finance a capable economist named Turgot (tur gō). If the king had backed him up, there might have been no revolution. He wanted the expenses of the king's court cut down, taxes reduced, and the whole system of revenue changed so that the rich and privileged classes should pay more

nearly their fair share of the burdens of government. He did away with the hated *corvée*. But Marie Antoinette didn't like him. Neither did the nobles of the country. So they got to work on King Louis and finally induced him to dismiss Turgot.

A little later Louis summoned to his aid a Swiss banker named Necker. While he was Minister of Finance the king decided to aid the Americans in their struggle for independence. This was very fine for the Americans, but it added several millions to the French debt. Necker proposed thorough reform in taxation; but again the nobles protested, and Louis yielded. But before Necker retired, he published a report showing where the government's revenue came from and what was done with it.

Next came Calonne (ca lõn'). He tried to make a show of prosperity by borrowing money to spend on public works. Then he suggested that leading men from all classes should be called together for advice. To this "Assembly of Notables" he could say only that the country was bankrupt and suggest thorough reforms; so Calonne went the way of his two predecessors. But it was finally agreed that the representatives of the people — the Estates-General — should be summoned to deal with the crisis.

Are you surprised that the nobles refused to accept any of these proposals that they pay more taxes? The reforms proposed by Turgot and Necker were popular with the masses of the French people. Why didn't Louis XVI go through with these propositions and make himself a hero?

232. The Meeting of the Estates-General. — It was 175 years since the Estates-General had met. How were its members to be chosen? Nobody living could tell! But a scheme was finally worked out, with about 300 representatives elected from the First Estate, the clergy; 300 from the Second Estate, the nobles; and 600 from the Third Estate. The representatives of the last group included mostly business and professional men. A glance at the time-graphs on pages 372 and 390 will suggest how much had happened in Europe since the Estates-General had met. As far as France was concerned, much more was to happen in the next quarter-century.

When the Estates-General came together (May 5, 1789), its big problem seemed to be to get money. The privileged classes hoped it would be secured, but not from them. The Third Estate was

determined that it should not all come from them, and that their right to a share in the government should be recognized. The king hoped that somehow all classes would get enough of what they wanted so that everything would be smoothed out.

But now came an unexpected complication. In the past, as far as could be discovered, the three estates had voted separately. That meant that the 600 representatives of the Third Estate counted for no more than the 300 of either of the other two, who together represented only about four per cent of the whole population of France. Some of the nobles and clergy were in sympathy with the just demands of the Third Estate; so if all three groups should meet together, as the Third Estate wished, there would be a majority of votes to support anything on which the Third Estate might agree. Count Mirabeau (mīr'a bō), who was himself a noble, and Abbé Sieyès (syā yes'), a well-known clergyman, came to be leaders of the Third Estate.

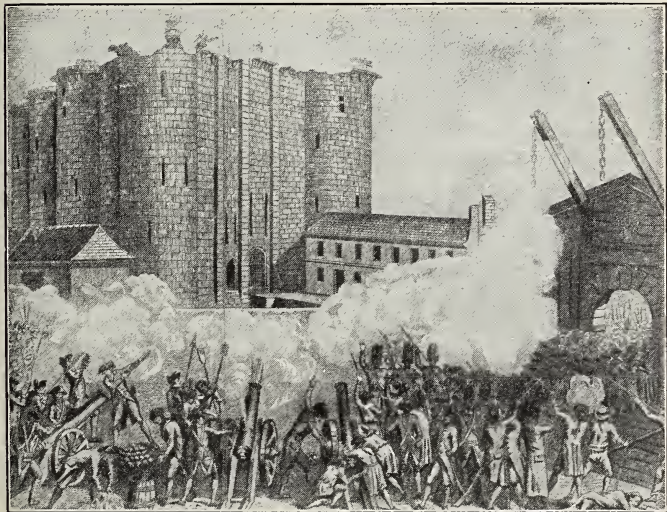
The Third Estate finally took the decisive step of declaring itself to be qualified to act for all France, whether the other two estates joined it or not. When the king sent troops to dissolve the meeting of the Third Estate, its members went to an indoor tennis court near by, and took an oath that they would not disband until they had drawn up a constitution for France. Finally the king gave in and ordered the nobles and clergy to join the Third Estate. This act itself meant a revolution. No such meeting had ever occurred before in France or any other great country on the continent of Europe. The combined body called itself the *National Assembly*.

Once more the king had a big chance to make himself popular. Why didn't he come before the Assembly and tell them he would go along with them in getting the country on its feet again? What important facts in the history of the United States occurred in 1789? Was the making of the United States Constitution in a way contrary to that provided in the Articles of Confederation a peaceful revolution, as truly as the turning of the Estates-General into the National Assembly?

233. The Revolution Begins to Get Rough. — Thus far there had been no general disturbance in France. But the "mob of Paris" was becoming stirred up. The impression got abroad that the king's soldiers were to be used to overthrow the new assembly.

This may not have been true, but the rumor led to riots; mobs plundered gunshops to get weapons. Even some of the French soldiers joined the rioters.

On July 14, 1789, in a wild attack a mob set fire to and destroyed the royal prison, known as the Bastille, and killed its defenders.



THE ATTACK ON THE BASTILLE

In two hours and a half the revolutionists got possession of this famous prison, and it was soon in ruins.

It contained at the time only seven prisoners, most of whom deserved to be there. But to the masses, the Bastille stood as the grim symbol of all the tyranny and injustice of the "Old Régime."¹ King Louis XVI was aroused in the night and told the story of the attack on the Bastille. "This is riot," he exclaimed. "No, sire," replied the messenger, "it is revolution." The French people today celebrate July 14, Bastille Day, much

¹ Lafayette, one of the leaders of the new Assembly, sent the key of the Bastille to George Washington. You may see it today if you visit Washington's old home at Mt. Vernon.

as we do July 4. It signifies to them the beginning of a day of freedom for "la belle France."

Now the Revolution broke out all over France. Mobbs tried to tear down castles and destroy the records of feudal obligations. In place after place the old governments were broken down and new ones set up. Soon a "National Guard," with Lafayette at its head, was organized, both to keep order and to protect the revolutionists against any efforts on the part of the king to suppress them. The National Assembly adopted the Tricolor — the flag with three stripes, red, white, and blue, which France reveres today — in place of the white banner of the old Bourbon family.

Though the king visited Paris, approved what had been done, and accepted the new flag, many feared that as long as he lived out at Versailles he would be influenced by those who were opposed to the Revolution. So one day a mob, made up mostly of women, went out to the palace and demanded that the king and his family come back to Paris with them. Then, in one of the strangest processions in which a king ever participated, the wild women of Paris accompanied the royal family on their way to the city. Since they had "the baker," "the baker's wife," and "the baker's little boy," as they called the king and queen and their little son, they ought to get bread now.

Why did Lafayette send the key of the Bastille to George Washington?

Why did the mob of women and those who were in sympathy with them think that they would be any better off if they had the king in Paris?

234. The National Assembly Overturns Centuries. — August 4, 1789, is a date really more significant in French history than July 14. On that night, as the National Assembly was in session, a young noble, whose conscience told him that his class was largely to blame for the Revolution, rose and proposed to give up the feudal privileges that had belonged to him. A wave of emotion, in some respects magnificent, in others merely hysterical, surged through the whole Assembly. Man after man arose and proposed to do away with special privileges which he had enjoyed. Each proposal was speedily adopted. Serfdom was ended; special rights to office had been repealed; oppressive taxes were abolished; and all citizens were given the same rights before the law. In one night almost all the rights and privileges on which the entire

feudal system of France rested were done away with. Mirabeau called it "an orgy of sacrifice."

A few days later (August 21, 1789) the Assembly drew up a "Declaration of the Rights of Man." Do these quotations remind you of the American Declaration of Independence?

"Men are born, and always continue, free and equal in respect to their rights."
"Political liberty consists in the power of doing whatever does not injure another."

"The law is an expression of the will of the community. All citizens have a right to concur, either personally or by their representatives, in its formation."

"The end of all political associations is the preservation of the natural and imprescriptible rights of man: and these rights are Liberty, Property, Security, and Resistance to Oppression."

Is there any danger in putting through a far-reaching reform so suddenly as was done when the French abolished the feudal system? What likenesses and what differences do you see up to this time between the American Revolution and the French Revolution?

235. New Laws for Church and State. — The National Assembly finally worked out a constitution. Under this constitution, which went into effect in 1791, France still had a king, but he was deprived of almost all of his former powers. A cartoon of the time represents him as shut up in a cage and saying disgustedly in reply to a question as to what he was doing, "I am signing my name." There was to be one house in the law-making branch, to be called the "Legislative Assembly." The government was not made any more democratic than that of England or the United States at the time, because though all taxpayers might vote, only owners of considerable property could hold office.

A revolutionary change was also made in the local government of France. The old divisions of the country were abolished, and eighty-three new ones known as *departments* were arranged, each with its own local government. The departments were in turn made up of *communes*, which formed the smallest organization of local government — 40,000 or more in the entire country.

In order to get the Church under the control of the revolutionists, it was provided that clergymen were to be elected by the people, and the government was to pay their salaries. All clergymen were

commanded to take an oath to support the new constitution, but many of them refused, believing that they could not do so and still be loyal to the Pope. So these "non-juring clergy" were made enemies of the Revolution instead of its friends.

Besides, the government took over all the lands of the Church — another measure which the former Church leaders naturally dis-

liked. These were finally distributed among a large number of the people. Later the land of the feudal lords was similarly broken up. As a result, the rural districts of France today, unlike many other countries, are made up largely of small farms rather than of large estates. This has given the farmers of France a different place in the social and economic life of the country than they have had almost anywhere else.

Another mistake was made in trying to provide money. It was thought that the income from the Church lands that had been seized would be sufficient to make good a large issue of paper money, called the *assignats* (as sēn yǎ'). The scheme did not work, and things turned out the way

they always do when governments issue paper money in great quantities without having any sound backing for it. The assignats went down in value until finally they were not worth the paper they were printed on.

Why is it so easy for ignorant people to imagine that printing large amounts of paper money is going to make a country prosperous? What are some of the errors in their thinking?



Culver

LOUIS XVI TAKING THE OATH TO THE
CONSTITUTION

At the King's side are the Queen and their little son. While Louis took this oath because he thought he had to, quite likely at the time he really meant it.

236. The Revolution Turns Radical. — When the Legislative Assembly provided for under the constitution of 1791 came together, at least three kinds of opinion were represented in it. One group was satisfied with the new constitution and did not want the Revolution to go any further. In fact, if the nobles and the king's immediate associates had kept quiet, perhaps nothing more serious would have happened. But the king's brother and many of the nobles got out of France and tried to stir up the rulers of other monarchies to help restore Louis to his crown. Louis tried to keep in touch with some of these *émigrés* (ā mē grā), as those who had left the country were called, and in June, 1791, he and his family tried to join their friends beyond the borders of France. Louis was recognized at a town near the border, captured, and brought back to Paris. This attempt to escape caused many to lose confidence in him, and the life of the king and his family from that time on was a most unhappy one.

A group known as the Girondists, because many of their leaders came from the district in France known as the Gironde (zhē rond'), really wanted to set up a republic, but not by violent means. A much more radical group was nicknamed "the Mountain" because its representatives occupied high seats in the place where the Assembly met.¹ Radical clubs were organized outside the Assembly, including some of the members of the Assembly itself. These societies, known as Jacobin clubs because the first of them, founded in Paris, had that name, sprang up all over France and numbered as members many who had nothing much in common except that they were dissatisfied. The leaders of these radical clubs wanted far-reaching changes and did not care by what means they were made.

As the days went on, the "constitutionalists" and other moderate reformers steadily lost influence. Mobs in Paris kept the people stirred up. Radical newspapers — we might call them "yellow journals" today — added fuel to the flame by constant attacks on the former leaders of the government. "Liberty, Equality, and

¹ Their seats were on the left side of the hall, while the conservative-minded representatives sat on the right side. We often speak today of people who do not want extensive changes in society or politics as "the right," and those who do want such changes as "the left."

Fraternity," the fine slogan of the Revolution, was made to seem the symbol of hatred toward any who had not "gone along" with the radical leaders. At length the bourgeois leaders — business and professional men who had wanted a revolution but did not want it to go too far — were simply scared into silence.

The most active leaders of the Mountain group were Marat (mà rá'), Danton (dän tōn'), and Robespierre (rōb's pi âr'). Marat was a physician who had been sincerely distressed by the sufferings of the poor. Danton was a lawyer who could talk effectively to crowds, and therefore gained considerable influence with the people at large. Robespierre was a small-town lawyer who had come to Paris when things began to warm up. Someone said of him before he came into power: "This man will go far. He believes everything he says." Since these three men were willing to "go far," they speedily rose to power with the support of the ignorant masses.

Are there any parties or organizations today that favor radical changes without caring much how they are brought about? Why do organizations of that kind gain in prominence and power in times of a country's distress?

237. The King Goes to the Guillotine. — Long before the radical element actually came into power, Louis had lost any sympathy that he might once have had for the Revolution. The death of Mirabeau in 1791 removed the only liberal who had any influence over him. Most of those who wanted to help Louis XVI did him more harm than good. When the rulers of Prussia and Austria were, in the spring of 1792, plainly preparing to invade France, the Assembly declared war.

A little later the Duke of Brunswick, at the head of a Prussian force, marched into France and threatened to take vengeance on Paris if any harm came to the French king or his family. That act aroused the French people still further. After a mob had attacked the palace of the Tuileries (twēl'rē), where the king and queen were staying, the Legislative Assembly suspended the king from office and voted to call a Convention to make further changes in the government. On the first day the new Convention met it voted to set up a republic. That left no place for the king, who now became simply "Citizen Louis Capet."

The extremists among the republicans wanted to have Louis put to death on the ground that he had secretly aided the enemies of the revolutionary government and was therefore guilty of treason. As long as he lived, some would be anxious to restore him to his former place. Just as had been the case with Charles I of England a century and a half before, many felt that Louis did not deserve execution. The Convention finally voted, however, by a fair margin, to have him executed; and on January 21, 1793, he went to the guillotine, the instrument that had recently come into use in France for cutting off the heads of persons condemned to death. He met his fate bravely enough, as did his queen, Marie Antoinette, some months later.

How do your sympathies stand with reference to the parties in this terrible struggle up to this point? If you had been a member of the National Convention, do you think you would have voted to execute "Louis Capet"? Why does it often happen that when a revolution takes place, terrible personal vengeance is taken on those who have been in authority before? The Lion of Lucerne, carved out of rock in the Swiss city of that name, commemorates the bravery of the Swiss soldiers who were the king's bodyguard and tried to protect the Tuileries when the mob attacked that palace. How could it happen, in view of the love of the Swiss people for democracy, that Swiss soldiers should die in behalf of Louis XVI?

238. What Other Countries Thought of the Revolution. — "How much is this the greatest event that ever happened and how much the best!" So exclaimed the English Whig, Charles James Fox, with reference to the destruction of the Bastille. But as extreme measures went steadily further and "radicals" willing to go any length got into power, thousands changed their minds about the wisdom and advantage of the Revolution. They wondered whether revolution might not mean the overthrow of all law and government.

In the United States, too, there was a big difference of opinion. Some did not care if the former leaders of France were killed. You probably have learned how Edmund Genêt (zhě nā'), the representative of the French government in the United States, lost sympathy for France by the high-handed way in which he tried to drag this country into war on the side of France. President Washington felt that the treaty of alliance made between Louis

XVI's government and the United States in 1778 did not apply to conditions as they existed in 1793, and so he issued a proclamation declaring that this country would be neutral in the war that was then on between revolutionary France and other countries.

When, in the fall of 1792, the French Revolutionists openly declared themselves enemies of monarchies everywhere, and offered



THE FIRST SINGING OF THE MARSEILLAISE

The author of the song, Rouget de Lisle, is singing it before the Mayor of Strasbourg.

to aid those in any country who wanted to overthrow their monarchs, they threw England into the ranks of their enemies. From 1793 for over twenty years England was almost all the time at war, first with the revolutionary government of France and later with the government set up by Napoleon Bonaparte. If those who claimed to be the friends of liberty had been more reasonable, there might have been a different outcome later for both France and the rest of Europe. The revolutionary armies did succeed in keeping their foes out of France and conquering Holland and the whole region west of the Rhine.

Just about this time the present national air of France, the *Marseillaise* (mar sā yāz'), was written and came into general use. If you have never read the words of it, do so now and see if they suggest the spirit of the better side of the Revolution. How can a cause that is essentially good be harmed by its own friends?

239. The Reign of Terror. — Meantime the Revolution came to a ghastly climax in France. The new leaders, Marat, Danton, and Robespierre, concluded that the only way to be sure of estab-



ON THE WAY TO THE GUILLOTINE

The instrument of execution stands in the rear. This scene portrays a famous episode described by Dickens in his *Tale of Two Cities*.

lishing their policies was by reckless and unyielding violence. Said Marat, "There are still 270,000 nobles, priests, and their followers who are a menace to the state. Therefore these 270,000 heads must fall." Danton, who was not always in favor of ruthless cruelty, also joined in this program as the only means of establishing the Revolution.

A "Great Committee of Public Safety" was appointed to take charge of the affairs of the country. At first Danton was perhaps its leading member, but after a time Robespierre was foremost among them. Anyone suspected of saying or doing anything against the Revolution might be arrested and put to death without

trial. It is true that most people who did nothing against the policies of the Committee of Public Safety and kept quiet went on almost as if the "terror" did not exist, but no one's life was really safe. Insurrections were sternly suppressed.

No country can continue indefinitely under a reign of terror. After a time, the leaders began to quarrel among themselves. Marat, who had become almost crazed with his thirst for blood, was murdered. Then Danton and Robespierre had a falling out, and Danton went to the guillotine when he tried to institute milder policies. A few months later (July, 1794) Robespierre followed him. Now the worst of the terror was over. Things gradually quieted down. The National Convention took back into its own hands the powers it had passed over to the Committee of Public Safety and other committees, and nearly normal conditions again prevailed in France. But during a little over a year many thousands of people, many of whom were wholly innocent, had been sacrificed in mad, fanatical bloodshed, and a stain was left on the name of France which we still shudder to look at.

If the Committee of Public Safety had been less reckless and cruel, might they have kept their government in power for some time? Have you read any novels or stories dealing with the Reign of Terror?

240. Achievements of the National Convention. — The National Convention, soon after it came into office, drew up a new constitution which was adopted by popular vote but which never actually went into effect. Just as has happened in other revolutions, the revolutionists undertook to upset many things which did not need upsetting. They proposed to start the count of the years all over again, calling the first year under this constitution the Year I. They also renamed the months of the year and undertook to substitute ten-day periods for weeks. They even proposed to set aside the Christian religion.

During the three years of its rule (1792–1795) the Convention did some good things, however, which our horror at the Reign of Terror must not cause us to overlook. Provisions were made for handling the public debt and for improving the financial management of the country. All property qualifications for voting were done away with, and all men were put on the same level as far as political rights were concerned. Women received the right to own

property on the same basis as men (women did not have that privilege in the United States at that time, by the way). The metric system of weights and measures, which not only France but many other countries now use, was adopted — far superior, if we would only think so, to the one which England and the United States insist on using. Efforts were made to establish a good public school system, and the first normal school in France was founded.

When the Terror was over, the Convention drew up still another constitution, which is referred to as the Constitution of the Year III. This set up a government with a legislature of two houses and a board of five Directors as the executive authority. For the next four years (1795–1799) we speak of the government of France as the *Directory*. Nothing more was done toward the introduction of new theories of government or society. In fact the new leaders were not particularly capable or honest.

Did all men in the United States have the right to vote in 1795? Did the United States have a public school system in 1795? Why don't we adopt the metric system?

241. Napoleon Bonaparte's Rise to Prominence. — When the new constitution was put into effect, revolt against the government's authority was started in Paris. A mob threatened to attack the meeting place of the Convention. A young soldier named Napoleon Bonaparte was entrusted with its defense. He used his troops and guns so skillfully that the mob was easily beaten off and the government saved. This "whiff of grapeshot" introduced to the French people a man who tried to make over not only France but the world, and who was one of the greatest military leaders of all time. Edmund Burke had predicted that out of the French Revolution would come a military despotism headed by a popular general; his prophecy was only too correct.

When Napoleon Bonaparte first became famous, he was only twenty-six years old. He was born on the island of Corsica in 1769, just after France had become the owner of the island. He was educated in a military school in France, but got little pleasure there, for the sons of nobles and others of high social standing constantly reminded him of his humble ancestry. The "Little Corporal" never forgot such things.

As a young man, Napoleon was not much to look at, for he was hardly more than five feet tall and not at all imposing. Yet after he gained full self-confidence, he adopted a pose which we often see in pictures of him and which suggests his complete satis-



NAPOLEON BONAPARTE

This picture shows him in the pose which we have come to think of as characteristic.

faction with himself. He accomplished many things that benefited his country as well as himself; but from all we can judge, these good things were, at least in part, undertaken to secure credit for himself. He could do kind deeds; he had sympathy for his soldiers; but if it served his purpose to break a promise or ignore the rights of a whole nation, he did not hesitate to do so. Said he once, "Morality has nothing to do with such a man as I am." His first wife was Josephine, a widow who had friends among the French politicians and who gained friends for Napoleon himself. "I win the battles, and Josephine wins the hearts," he once declared. He was a "terrible worker"; he could get along with little more than four hours' sleep a night. He was good at picking out capable men to serve him. If only Napoleon's good qualities could have mastered his conceit and selfish ambition!

Do you see any likeness between Napoleon Bonaparte and Alexander the Great? How old was each of them when he started on his world-shaking career? Does a person's idea of his own importance determine what people in general will think of him?

242. Bonaparte's First Campaigns. — When the Directory came into power, England, Austria, and Sardinia were still at war with France. It was decided to make a special effort to defeat Austria. The easiest way to do this seemed by way of Italy, for northern Italy was largely under Austrian control. With an army poorly equipped and much smaller than that of the Austrians, Bonaparte

crossed the Alps into Italy. Speedily he defeated the king of Sardinia, and then in battle after battle four Austrian armies also were routed. There was nothing for Austria to do but quit. She made peace in 1797 (the treaty of Campo Formio). Austria agreed to the setting up of republics in northern Italy, which everybody knew would be under the control of France, and serfdom and feudalism were abolished in that region.

Still there remained England. Not knowing how to get at England herself, Bonaparte conceived the wild idea of attacking her by blocking one of the ways to reach her distant possessions in India. With a small army he succeeded in getting away from France and reaching Egypt. Bonaparte gained one famous victory — the battle of the Pyramids (1798).



BONAPARTE

As he signed it in the early days of his prominence.

But then things began to go wrong for him. A French fleet was defeated in the Battle of the Nile (1798) by the British fleet under Lord Nelson.

Just about this time, Bonaparte learned by reading an English newspaper that matters were not going right at home and that the Directory was becoming very unpopular. If he could get back to France without telling too much about his experiences in the East, wouldn't the nation be willing to take him as the leader they were looking for? Luck was with him, and he got back safely. You may have read of soldiers refusing to obey their commander, but here was a commander deserting his army and at the same time winning a bigger place for himself by doing so.

An officer in Napoleon's army in Egypt found the famous Rosetta Stone. Why was this discovery important? Since the Suez Canal had not been built, why did Bonaparte's presence in Egypt threaten English leadership in India? A frequently quoted sentence of Napoleon's is: "Forty centuries look down upon you." Where do you suppose he said that and to whom?

243. Napoleon, First Consul and Emperor. — It did not take long for Napoleon Bonaparte to make himself the real ruler of France. Associating himself with two of the Directors, he overthrew the rest of them and established a new plan of government

called the *Consulate*.¹ Bonaparte himself was First Consul, and the other two men were mere figureheads. Bonaparte called for a popular vote, or *plebiscite* (plëbīsīt), on the acceptance of the new constitution. The French people, disgusted with the bad government of the Directory, and carried away with what Bonaparte actually had done and what he made them think he had done, were almost unanimous in wanting the new constitution.



NAPOLÉON

As he signed it after becoming the ruler of France.

Bonaparte threw himself with vigor into his new leadership. Austrian armies were beaten again by Bonaparte himself at Marengo in Italy (1800) and by General Moreau (morō') at Hohenlinden in Germany. This was enough for Austria, and once more that country made a humiliating peace. Bonaparte still could not defeat England; but the English people were tired of the long-drawn-out warfare, and for about a year — the only time in a period of over twenty years — stopped fighting France (1802).

Napoleon — now that he began to call himself officially by his first name, as kings and emperors generally do — took advantage of his popularity to put himself on a still higher pedestal. A popular vote in 1802, with very few people opposing the plan, accepted a proposal to make him "Consul for Life." In about two years another similar vote approved his taking the title of Emperor (1804). Whether almost all the people really favored these promotions or whether they thought it was safest to vote that way would be hard to tell. But Napoleon could readily claim that he was ruling by the will of the people of France. When in the Cathedral of Notre Dame (nōtr' dām — it means "Our Lady") he put the imperial crown on his head, he at least could be sure that nobody else was giving it to him. Even the Pope, who came all the way from Rome to take part in this ceremony, was not given the satisfaction of bestowing the crown.

¹ The French call such a sudden and illegal change in the form or methods of government a *coup d'état* (coo d'etä') (literally this means "a stroke of state"). Not only France, but other countries, have seen similar events since Napoleon's time.

Recall enough of the early history of Rome to explain the origin of the term *plebiscite*. Why do you suppose we have no similar English word or phrase like "coup d'état"? Do the enormous majorities cast by the French voters in favor of Napoleon's proposals suggest anything as to the character of the French people? Has there been anything like these votes in any other country recently? How does Napoleon's age when he became emperor compare with the age of our presidents?

244. Napoleon as a Statesman.— Napoleon's achievements at home did far more to make him deserve fame than his wars. He centralized the French government and made it efficient. Officers in all the local governments were responsible to him. He demanded that taxes should be honestly but thoroughly collected. Whatever we may have to say about his own morality, he at least made public officials do their duty faithfully.

Napoleon abolished some of the harsh laws that had been passed against the émigrés. Many of them now came back to France and in gratitude became hearty supporters of his government. He set aside some of the unnecessary changes of the revolutionary period, restoring the old calendar and re-establishing Sunday and the seven-day week.

Napoleon settled the chief religious problems of the country. In 1801 he made the agreement with the Pope known as the *Concordat*, which lasted for over a century as the basis for the relations between the government and the Catholic Church in France. Catholics could now be loyal to both their church and the government. Napoleon himself was to nominate the high officials of the Church and then have them appointed by the Pope. The bishops in turn would select the local priests. The government would support the Catholic churches and pay the salaries of the priests.

Another significant change, perhaps the most lasting of all, was the drawing-up of a code of laws for France. All kinds of laws were in existence, some passed by the various revolutionary governments and others hanging over from earlier times. Napoleon had all these simplified and arranged in the famous *Code Napoléon*, which had a tremendous influence upon the legal system of France and of most of the other countries in western Europe. In his last days Napoleon truthfully said, "Waterloo will wipe

out the memory of my forty victories, but I shall go down to posterity with my code in my hand."

Napoleon favored a thorough system of education from the primary schools all the way through the higher grades to the University of France. He carried further the movement in this field begun by the National Convention, and gave a definite organization to the public schools, though he was not able to put into full operation all the ideas he had on the subject of education.

The early part of Napoleon's rule was a period of comparative prosperity for France. Now that graft and favoritism to idle and useless nobles were ended, people had much more confidence in the government. Business conditions picked up. Many canals and waterways and some good military highways were constructed. Roads, bridges, and docks were improved. The Bank of France was established as the central organization of the country for handling the country's money. Napoleon also tried to beautify the country, especially its capital city, Paris. In doing this he robbed the cities of Italy which were under his control of some of their most cherished works of art. Some of these later had to be given back, among the most noted of which were the bronze horses from the Church of St. Mark in Venice. (Page 298.)

Napoleon's idea of rebuilding a colonial empire for France did not turn out so well. He forced Spain to hand over to him the American province of Louisiana (1800), and sent a French army over to conquer the island of San Domingo. Disease and an unexpected resistance of the natives under their leader Toussaint l'Ouverture (toosahn'looverture') made Napoleon wonder whether the game was worth the candle. So, when the United States government proposed to buy New Orleans, Napoleon astounded the American agents by offering to sell them the entire province of Louisiana. The bargain was made, and the United States acquired the western half of the Mississippi Valley (1803). No other country ever got more for its money than the United States did in paying \$15,000,000 for this territory, though neither buyer nor seller knew much about its geography.

How does it come that the state of Louisiana has a legal code based on the Code Napoléon, while all the other states trace their legal systems back to England?

245. Napoleon and His Foes. — Though Napoleon had extended France to what Louis XIV had called its natural boundaries and seemed to have made permanent the good things that the Revolution had brought to France, the country could not remain at peace under him. England, Austria, and other countries were either jealous of him or feared him. English nurses sometimes would try to quiet unruly children by telling them that "Boney" would get them if they didn't behave. Moreover, England felt that her prosperity depended upon the freedom of trade between England and Europe — and Napoleon restricted that trade.

Besides, under cover of extending the blessings of the French Revolution to the abused peoples of Europe, Napoleon attempted to bring almost the whole continent under his domination. He annexed part of Italy to France and set up puppet kingdoms elsewhere in Italy and in other parts of Europe. At various times he made his brother Louis king of Holland and his brother Joseph king first in Naples and then in Spain. The royal family of Portugal found it more comfortable to take a vacation, and went to their colony of Brazil, where they established a new Portuguese empire. Jerome Bonaparte was made "King of Westphalia," including under his rule considerable German territory. Later his sister Caroline became queen in Naples. Wherever Napoleon's power was extended, serfdom and feudalism were done away with if they still existed and a much more efficient government established. But the subject peoples had to supply soldiers for the army and contribute liberally by taxes and other means to pay the bills.

Peace with England lasted only a year. When William Pitt the Younger (who was William Pitt the Elder?) became prime minister in England, he formed a coalition of England and other powers against Napoleon. Napoleon assembled a great army just across the Channel as if he intended to invade England. Whether he ever actually meant to do so we cannot tell; but the death blow to any such hopes, if he did entertain them, came in the great naval battle off Cape Trafalgar in 1805, when the entire French and Spanish fleets were almost wiped out by the English fleet under Lord Nelson, though Nelson himself died in the hour of victory.

Before this naval disaster, Napoleon had already turned his armies to the East. Austrian troops were defeated in two great battles, Ulm and Austerlitz (ous'terlitz) (1805). Austerlitz is sometimes called the most brilliant of all Napoleon's victories. The next year (1806) he turned against Prussia, provoked that country into war, defeated the Prussian troops in the battle of Jena (yā'na), and captured Berlin.

The year 1807 saw him at war with Russia. He defeated the Russians in the battle of Friedland (freet'lant), but showed more sense in dealing with them this time than he did five years later. Instead of attempting to carry his campaigns into the heart of Russia, Napoleon met Czar Alexander I on a raft in the Niemen (nē'men) River and dazzled him with the brilliant idea of dividing Europe into two great empires with each man at the head of one of them. Now most of the continent of Europe except Turkey was either under Napoleon's thumb or allied with him.

Napoleon's victories brought some lasting changes in the map of Europe. Many little German principalities and duchies were united under Napoleon's own "protection" in what he called the Confederation of the Rhine or else annexed to other German states. Emperor Francis I of Austria, who had been Francis II, Holy Roman Emperor, was forced to give up that rather barren title (1806). Thus disappeared from European politics a title which had been a trouble-maker for a thousand years or so. Napoleon had dreams of repeating Alexander the Great's conquests in Asia, but he was never able to get around to it.

Did it really make any difference whether the title of Holy Roman Emperor was abandoned or not? Compare the methods used and the success achieved by Hitler in World War II with Napoleon's accomplishments.

246. The Continental System and Its Results. — England was always blocking the attainment of Napoleon's ambitions. He wanted to punish that "nation of shopkeepers," as he called it. When he found that he could not take an army over and conquer England, he decided to try to starve out the country. If he could prevent other nations from trading with England, he thought he might cut off much of her food supply, ruin her industry, and destroy her commerce. So he tried what he called the

"Continental System." He forbade all trade between England and that part of Europe which was under his control. Though he had no ships which he could use in a blockade, he declared that the British Islands were blockaded (1806).

Great Britain replied with an "order in council" (1807) which forbade any vessel of a neutral country to trade at a French port without first calling at a British port. The British government declared a blockade of the whole northwestern coast of Europe dominated by Napoleon — and Great Britain had ships enough so that she could make this blockade mean something. Napoleon came back with an announcement that any ship of a neutral country which obeyed the British regulations would be subject to capture by the French. Tough on a neutral ship captain to have to let a British man-of-war search him and then fall into the hands of the French and have the ship and cargo confiscated!

Napoleon's Continental System turned out far differently from the way he expected. Not only other continental countries but even France itself had to have English goods. He had to bring in shoes and boots for his own army in violation of his own policy. People suffered from the lack of some of the necessities of life if they could not pay the high prices caused by the exclusion of English goods. Business men were in distress. Ships did not dare to leave continental harbors for fear of being captured by the British. One by one the countries which had been under Napoleon's rule began to rebel, first among them Portugal.

Napoleon tried every scheme that he could think of to substitute other goods for those which England had been furnishing, but without much success. As a substitute for the sugar which was kept out by the British blockade, French experimenters did begin the cultivation of beets and the making of sugar from them. But living conditions became worse and worse among the masses of the people in many countries.

One new associate Napoleon got during these distressing years — the United States. How could a nation which talked so much about liberty let itself be drawn into this war on the side of one of the most reckless tyrants the world ever saw? Since so much of Europe was controlled by either England or Napoleon, the United States was almost the only neutral nation left to engage

in commerce. As a result of Napoleon's decrees and the British blockade, both French and English interfered with American shipping in a way wholly contrary to international law. But since England had so many more chances to interfere and since the United States had the additional grievance of the "impressment" of American seamen to serve on British ships, most Americans were much more stirred up against England than against Napoleon. The United States declared war on England in 1812, but did not make any direct alliance with Napoleon. In fact, the war turned out to be just simply one more annoyance for the British; and it was brought to a close without any gain for either Great Britain or America when peace arrived in Europe.

Why could not France build factories and make the goods that she had been importing from England? Is there any country today whose products and trade other nations could not get along without?

247. The Rising of the Nations: Resistance by Spain and Austria. — Napoleon did not realize that though he might beat *kings*, it was not so easy to keep *peoples* down indefinitely. When he imposed his rule on other countries, he stirred up a spirit of national patriotism which had not been seen for many a year. Portugal refused to obey the Continental System and turned to England for help. The English sent Sir Arthur Wellesley (welz'ly), better known to us as the Duke of Wellington, to assist her.

Then Spain rose in revolt against Joseph Bonaparte, whom Napoleon had put on the throne there, and he had to get out. Though their own government had been nothing to brag about, the Spaniards were determined not to live under a foreign conqueror. Napoleon then took a big army into Spain (1808), carrying Joseph back to Madrid with him. But as soon as Napoleon left, rebellion broke out again. Wellesley and his English soldiers came into Spain through Portugal, and the long, dragged-out "Peninsular War" followed, which did not end until the French had been driven out of Spain.

Prussia also started a reorganization under the leadership of Baron vom Stein (shtīn). Improvements in government took place; and though Napoleon had forced Prussia to agree that no more than 42,000 soldiers should be under arms at any time, the Prus-

sians drilled one group after another so that several times 42,000 actually received training.

In 1809 Austria thought she saw another chance to get free from Napoleon. The time was not yet ripe for success, however; and though it was harder than in 1805 to subdue Austria, Napoleon was once more victorious. The battle of Wagram (vä'gram) (July, 1809) was his last great victory. Austria had to give up considerable territory, and as a further sign of allegiance Maria Louisa, the daughter of the Austrian emperor, became Napoleon's wife. To be free to make a second marriage Napoleon had divorced his first wife, Josephine, and thus lost the good will of many French people.

Was it any credit to the Spaniards to prefer their old backward government to one imposed by Napoleon which at least had a new and up-to-date code of laws and instituted a number of worth-while changes?

248. The Rising of the Nations: Disaster to Napoleon.— Though the Spanish rebellion was the beginning of Napoleon's decline, Russia gave the blow which most directly caused his collapse. Czar Alexander I was utterly tired of the Continental System. Russia was so far from France that it was hard for Napoleon to enforce his authority there; but when the czar openly defied him by allowing English ships once more to come to Russia, Napoleon concluded to punish him.

Napoleon got together the largest army he ever had under his command at one time and led it to invade and conquer Russia; but the invasion turned into one of the greatest disasters that any ruler ever suffered. Napoleon failed to reckon with the geography of Russia. As his troops marched farther and farther toward the heart of that enormous country, the Russians made little effort to resist them in battle but laid waste the country and carried away all the food supplies they could. Napoleon finally captured Moscow, but soon after he occupied the city it was set on fire. There he was in a burned city in the middle of a foreign land with the terrible Russian winter just coming on. Disaster faced him if he stayed, and disaster followed him all the way as he tried to take his army back. The Russians again refused to come to a decisive battle with him, but they followed close behind and made all the trouble they could. When Napoleon recrossed

the western boundary of Russia, scarcely 20,000 men were left of the 500,000 he had taken into the country. The rest had starved, frozen, or been killed on the ghastly retreat.

This Russian calamity broke the spell which Napoleon had held over Europe. The king of Prussia rose in open revolt against him. Austria rebelled once more. Sweden joined his foes. In desperation Napoleon got together a new army made up chiefly of young

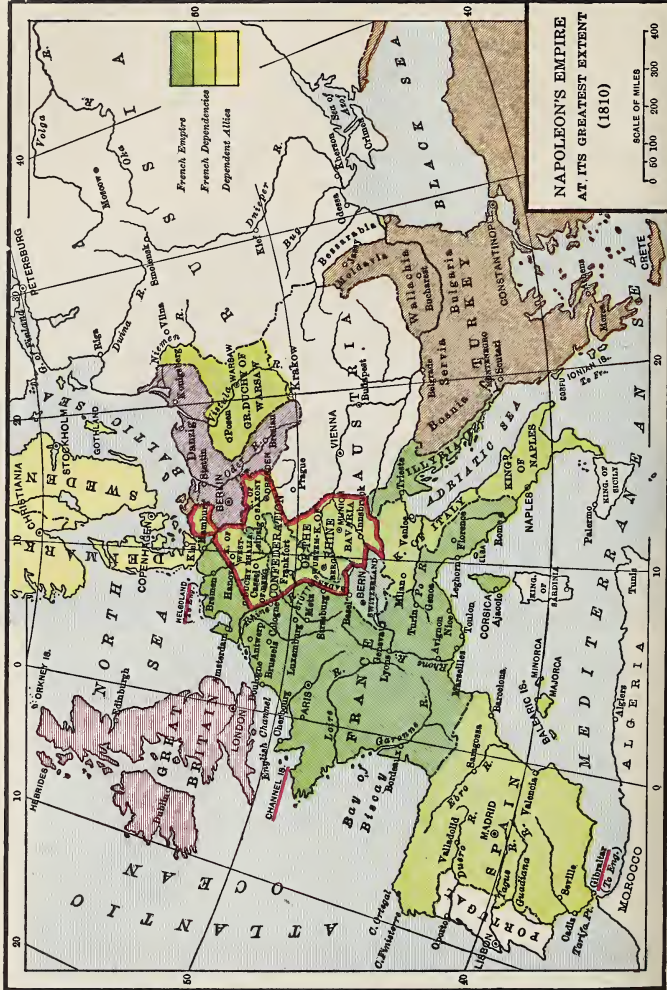


THE RETREAT FROM MOSCOW

The Russian painter, Vereshchagin, has portrayed most vividly many aspects of the terrible disaster which befell Napoleon's army on its invasion of Russia.

boys or of men who before had been thought too old to fight. Even with these he won two victories; but near Leipzig, in what is often called the Battle of the Nations, Napoleon suffered his first bad defeat in battle (1813). Then he retreated into France, followed by the troops of his allied enemies. Holland, Bavaria, and Naples also had risen against him. Wellington crossed the Pyrenees into France from the south. The game was up.

Do you know of any other invaders of Russia who had cause to regret it? The Russian composer Tschaikowsky (tshikóv'sky) composed his *Overture, 1812*, as a sort of musical description of Napoleon's defeat. Perhaps both the music and the story will make each more real to you.



NAPOLEON'S EMPIRE
AT ITS GREATEST EXTENT
(1810)

SCALE OF MILES
0 60 100 200 300 400

249. From Elba to St. Helena. — Napoleon's enemies at first agreed to let him keep his throne in France if he would accept the Rhine as the boundary of France and refrain from interfering in the affairs of other nations. But he indignantly refused this really generous offer. Then they told him that he would have to be satisfied with the little island of Elba as a principality which he might rule over to his heart's content. This time he had to accept their terms (1814). The armies of his foes came into Paris bringing "in their baggage," as Frenchmen said, the brother of Louis XVI, whom they put on the throne under the name of Louis XVIII.¹

Elba was too small for Napoleon and too near Europe for the safety of anybody else. While the "Allies" were trying to get things worked out, Napoleon got away from Elba and suddenly reappeared in France. The king sent troops to arrest him, but instead they deserted Louis XVIII and joined their "Little Corporal." Now the rulers of the other great European countries once more put armies in the field against him. For about one hundred days he held his own with the help of troops whom the enthusiastic French supplied. The decisive battle came at Waterloo, not far from Brussels in Belgium, on June 18, 1815. A British force under the Duke of Wellington, joined before the day was over by a Prussian army led by Blücher (blü'ker), proved too much for Napoleon. His sun had finally set.

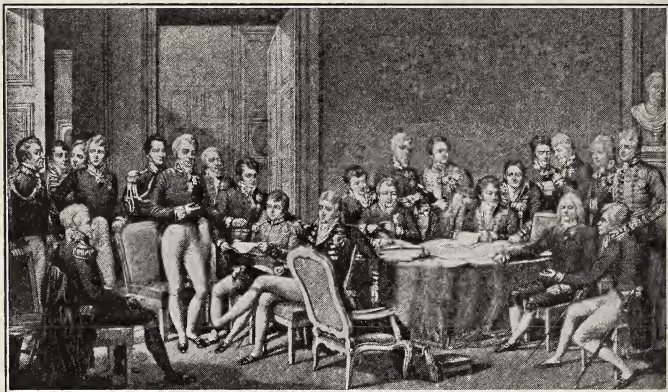
Knowing that the English were usually good sports, Napoleon threw himself on their mercy and asked to be allowed to live in retirement somewhere in England. The English did not care to make a martyr of him by putting him to death; but England was too near the rest of Europe. So they carried him to the island of St. Helena, far enough away so that there was no chance for him to get back. There, on that lonely island in the south Atlantic Ocean, he spent five and a half restless and unhappy years until his death in 1821. Thus passed off the scene one of the most extraordinary characters of all time. If "life begins at forty," as a professor has said, it was just getting well under

¹ He took the number XVIII in order to recognize the son of Louis XVI, who did not live to take the throne himself.

way for him. The rest of Europe breathed more easily, and soon France was adoring Napoleon as her greatest hero.

Can you explain why the French were so ready to take Napoleon back on his return from Elba? On the whole do you think Napoleon received harsh or generous treatment from his foes?

250. Remaking the Map of the World. — A number of kings owed their jobs to Napoleon. When Napoleon's day passed, their jobs slipped out from under them. Some of the changes that Napoleon had made, however, were clearly good enough to



A SCENE AT THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA

In this picture you observe many of the famous personages who came together to remake the map of Europe. At the extreme left is the Duke of Wellington. In front of him is Hardenberg of Prussia. Third from the Duke at his left is Metternich of Austria. Seated at the center is Castlereagh of England, and toward the right with his arm on the table is Talleyrand of France.

continue. All sorts of adjustments, therefore, had to be made, and affairs in Europe straightened out enough so that when one looked at a map of the continent, he might know what was what.

For that tremendous purpose representatives of the monarchs of Europe came together at Vienna in 1814. In this business they were engaged when Napoleon came back from Elba. This famous Congress of Vienna was not an organized convention holding regular meetings. All sorts of parties and social affairs were held for the benefit of the visitors to Vienna, and quite likely

the emperor of Austria may have wondered what he had got into when he paid the bills for the conference.

The four chief "allies" — England, Austria, Prussia, and Russia — naturally had the most to say about what was done. But France, represented by Talleyrand, secured better terms than defeated nations usually get. The Duke of Wellington from England, Czar Alexander I of Russia, Stein of Prussia, and his king, attended; Emperor Francis I of Austria was right at home. But perhaps the leader of the whole crowd was Prince Clemens Metternich, the prime minister of Austria. Today we can see many things that we could have done infinitely better, but we have the benefit of a second guess. Bad as it was, a settlement was made; and it was forty years before there was any considerable war in Europe.

The decisions of the conference may be said to have been governed by three slogans — legitimacy, compensation, and balance of power. By *legitimacy* was meant the restoration to power of the monarchs and royal families who had been overthrown in the course of the French Revolution and the rule of Napoleon. Louis XVIII, for instance, became King of France; and Ferdinand VII, whom Napoleon had driven out, went back to Spain.

Compensation was the idea that a country which had lost in some way in the course of the wars or had to sacrifice some territory in making the peace settlements should get something in exchange for its losses or sacrifices. All the governments, large and small, which had helped to defeat Napoleon wanted some sort of compensation for what they had done.

Balance of power, of course, meant in 1814 and 1815 just what it had always meant in European politics. No nation should be left in a position to endanger the peace and safety of the rest.

All the adjustments were made without any care as to the wishes of the people who lived in various countries and districts. The interests of kings and royal families and politicians received almost the only consideration. When the settlements were finally made, at Vienna or by private deals among rulers, these changes or restorations stood out as among the most important:

(1) Russia was given Finland, which had been under the rule of Sweden, and also Bessarabia, which Austria had taken from the Turks.

(2) To pay Sweden for losing Finland, Norway was taken away from Denmark and united with Sweden under the same king, but with a separate government otherwise.

(3) Austria received the greater part of northern Italy and some of Poland, as well as leadership among the southern states in Germany.

(4) The king of Sardinia had the part of Italy known as Piedmont (pēd'-mont), and received back the districts of Savoy' and Nice (nēce) which Napoleon had taken from him.

(5) Southern Italy and Sicily were put back under the rule of a member of the Bourbon family.

(6) Prussia was given considerable territory in the lower part of the Rhine Valley, as well as additions in other parts of Germany. A union of states known as the German Confederation was formed, which included a considerable number of the smaller governments in Germany.

(7) Great Britain did not care to get mixed up in the politics of the continent by having territory there. She was content with island possessions and other colonies elsewhere in the world. These included Malta and the Ionian Islands in the Mediterranean Sea, Helgoland in the North Sea, and the Dutch colonies of Ceylon, Cape Colony in South Africa, and part of Guiana in South America to which the British had helped themselves while Holland was under the rule of Napoleon.

(8) Holland received compensation, but of a very unsatisfactory kind, through the union of Belgium with Holland under the king of Holland.

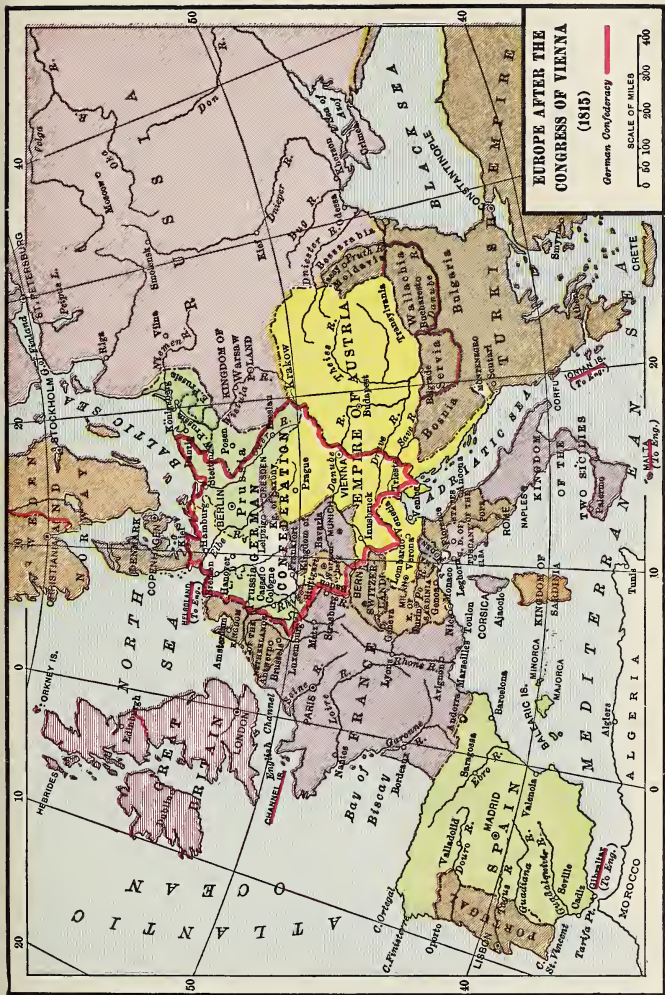
(9) The Poles had hoped that somehow out of it all Poland might again become a free and independent nation. Perhaps none were more disappointed than they. Austria and Prussia kept some Polish territory, and the Czar of Russia was made King of Poland with a large part of Poland under his rule.

Why do you suppose the Congress of Vienna so completely ignored the wishes of the people in the lands which they parcelled out? Look at a map of Europe today and see how many of the states mentioned above seem to have lasted until the present time. Why do you suppose France was able to come out of the settlement with comparatively few losses of territory?

251. Lasting Results of the Revolution and of Napoleon's Career. — This couplet was not written about Napoleon, but it might well have been :

"He left a name, at which the world grew pale,
To point a moral, or adorn a tale."

No other ruler in modern times has had an influence equal to Napoleon's upon the history of his and later years. Yet if the French Revolution had not taken place, there would have been no chance for him. That great movement was bigger even than



EUROPE AFTER THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA (1815)

German Confederacy

SCALE OF MILES
0 50 100 200 300 400

Napoleon. Its slogan, "Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity," was not fully realized anywhere, but enough gains were made to help greatly in the struggle toward those ideals by lovers of freedom as time went on. How small a space on the time-graphs on pages 390 and 484 is occupied by the allusions to the Revolution and Napoleon! But how meaningful were those years in the history of the world!

(1) In France the absolute rule of the Bourbon monarchs was ended, although it was hard for some of the family to believe it. Feudalism and most of the other abuses of the Old Régime were abolished — most fully in France, and partly elsewhere. Napoleon's conquests carried this blessing outside of France.

(2) France had a government under a constitution. The system of local government set up by the Revolution and Napoleon has not been changed. The Code Napoléon was a valuable contribution not only to France but to law and government in many other lands.

(3) In Germany important steps were unconsciously taken toward a German union. Only about thirty-eight kingdoms, duchies, and principalities were left out of the three hundred or more that once existed in Germany.

(4) The Revolution aroused not only in France but in other parts of Europe a spirit of liberty which could not be permanently crushed.

(5) The people of France and of other countries were swept by a fierce kind of national patriotism. Even Germany and Italy, though it was years before united nations were formed in either, had been stirred by a feeling of patriotism for their *country* rather than for a king. Napoleon unwittingly aroused it when he imposed his authority over them.

(6) Great Britain stood out among the countries of Europe as the strongest European power.

(7) The New World countries which together we speak of as Latin America got started on the road to independence. Here was another unforeseen result of Napoleon's policies.

All the results which we have mentioned so far either were clearly good or had much good in them. Now we must call attention to other influences that were by no means so good.

(8) The excesses to which the French Revolution had been carried made some people afraid of republics as a form of government. Kings and plenty of other people feared that any republic might mean wild, reckless, and harmful changes.

(9) Absolute monarchies again became the prevailing form of government among the leading continental powers outside of France. It was the middle of the nineteenth century before written constitutions came into vogue anywhere else in Europe.

(10) The glamour of Napoleon's military glory dazzled France and the rest of Europe. Most of the leading nations thought they had to have big armies. Smaller countries thought they had to imitate the larger ones. In France Napoleon came to be looked upon almost as a martyr. Stories of his heroic deeds and brilliant sayings and grand ambitions were told over and over again to the French people. The "Napoleonic Legend" had great influence upon the thinking of the French people for a long time.

(11) The terrible cost of the long wars in money and life may also be charged against the Revolution. England's national debt after the war was nearly four and one-half billion dollars — an enormous sum for those days. Reforms in government and society in England and perhaps in other countries were delayed for years because the government had to give its chief attention to crushing Napoleon.

Compare the French Revolution with revolutions in England and with the American Revolution with reference to permanent results. Which caused the greatest change in the life and customs of the people? Was the crushing of Napoleon worth all it cost Europe? How many of the lasting results which we have mentioned do you think were intended by those who were responsible for them and how many came incidentally or accidentally?

IDEAS TO STAY WITH US

Conditions in France in the eighteenth century were such as to make life easy and pleasant for the king and his court and a few others but bitter and hard for the great mass of the people.

Debts that could not be paid forced King Louis XVI to summon the Estates-General to consider plans to meet the country's financial troubles.

The Third Estate succeeded in getting power into its own hands. In one night was accomplished the abolition of almost all of the inexcusable feudal privileges which had lasted altogether too long.

A considerable number of other desirable reforms were made, including new features of local government and important changes in industry, education, and other phases of life.

France in a period of about fifteen years passed from one absolute monarch through several stages of change until it had another master. After a period of bloodshed was over, the government became weaker and gave Napoleon Bonaparte the chance to raise himself step by step to a place as Emperor of the French. At first the excesses of the revolutionary government of France, and later the fear of Napoleon, caused all the leading powers of Europe to take arms against France at some time.

Napoleon was one of the greatest generals of all time and enough of a statesman to introduce into France and other countries many desirable reforms. His ambition was so great that he aspired to be the ruler of all Europe. The battle of Waterloo brought to an end his extraordinary military career. He spent his last days in exile on St. Helena.

The delegates of the various monarchs met at Vienna to divide the spoil and rearrange the map of Europe. Legitimacy, compensation, and the balance of power were the slogans of this Congress of Vienna.

Many far-reaching changes resulted from the French Revolution and the career of Napoleon. Great strides were made, especially in France, toward "liberty, equality, and fraternity," though they were not fully realized. The defeat of Napoleon was accomplished only after a terribly costly struggle, which brought with it for a while a distrust of government by the people and a return to absolute monarchies.

NAMES AND TERMS WE SHOULD UNDERSTAND

- | | | |
|-----------------------|--|-----------------------------|
| 1. The Estates | 11. Mirabeau | 19. Jacobins |
| 2. Old Régime | 12. Lafayette | 20. Girondists |
| 3. House of Bourbon | 13. Bastille | 21. Danton |
| 4. Bourgeois | 14. Declaration of the
Rights of Man | 22. Marat |
| 5. Louis XVI | 15. "Liberty, Equal-
ity, Fraternity" | 23. Robespierre |
| 6. Marie Antoinette | 16. Departments | 24. Guillotine |
| 7. Turgot | 17. Communes | 25. <i>The Marseillaise</i> |
| 8. Necker | 18. Emigrés | 26. Reign of Terror |
| 9. Estates-General | | 27. Metric system |
| 10. Tennis Court Oath | | 28. Napoleon Bonaparte |

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- | | | |
|---------------------------|-------------------------------------|------------------------|
| 29. The Directory | 37. Peninsular War | 45. St. Helena |
| 30. Coup d'état | 38. Arthur Wellesley;
Wellington | 46. Congress of Vienna |
| 31. First Consul | | 47. Talleyrand |
| 32. Toussaint l'Ouverture | 39. Latin America | 48. Metternich |
| 33. Concordat | 40. Baron von Stein | 49. Louis XVIII |
| 34. Code Napoléon | 41. Battle of the Nations | 50. Legitimacy |
| 35. Nelson | 42. Elba | 51. Compensation |
| 36. Continental System | 43. "The Hundred Days" | 52. Balance of power |
| | 44. Waterloo | |

DATES WORTH REMEMBERING

- 1789 July 14, Bastille Day
- 1789 August 4, Abolition of feudal privileges
- 1793-1794 The Reign of Terror
- 1795 The Directory
- 1799 Napoleon Bonaparte, First Consul
- 1803 The Purchase of Louisiana by the United States
- 1804 Napoleon, Emperor
- 1805 Battle of Trafalgar
- 1812 The retreat from Moscow
- 1814 The abdication of Napoleon; the Congress of Vienna
- 1815 The battle of Waterloo

INTERESTING SUBJECTS YOU MAY LIKE TO KNOW ABOUT

- France just before 1789
- Louis XVI and Marie Antoinette
- Mirabeau
- The Fall of the Bastille
- The August Days, 1789
- The Revolution as One Sees It in Dickens' *Tale of Two Cities*
- Robespierre
- The Story of Charlotte Corday
- George Washington and Citizen Genêt
- The Reign of Terror
- Lord Nelson
- The Early Life and Character of Napoleon Bonaparte
- Napoleon Bonaparte in Egypt
- Napoleon as a Statesman
- Napoleon and the Province of Louisiana
- Why the United States Fought Great Britain in 1812
- "Back from Elba"
- Famous Participants in the Congress of Vienna

INTERESTING PROJECTS YOU MAY LIKE TO UNDERTAKE

1. Draw a map of Europe in 1789; on the same map or on a separate one indicate the changes that took place by reason of the decisions of the Congress of Vienna. Locate on one map, or both, European capitals, locations of battles, and other important places.

2. Arrange dramatizations of scenes in the early days of the French Revolution, such as: a discussion among the king's ministers about calling the Estates-General; a discussion among members of the three Estates; the session of the night of August 4, 1789.

3. Draw a sketch or model of the Bastille; the guillotine.

4. Draw plans for some of Napoleon's famous battles, *e.g.* Austerlitz.

5. Dramatize a session of the Committee of Public Safety.

6. Draw cartoons to show some of the following: what Napoleon thought of England; how England felt toward Napoleon; how the European wars looked to people in the United States.

7. Dramatize scenes in Napoleon's career connected with one or more of the following: the coup d'état; the sale of Louisiana; a discussion with some of his subordinates concerning the Continental System; a discussion among soldiers retreating from Moscow; a soliloquy of Napoleon at St. Helena.

8. Conversations in a French home in such years as 1787, 1793, 1794, 1799, 1804, 1809, 1815.

9. A similar series of conversations in an English home in such years as 1793, 1805, 1808, 1815.

10. Conversations among delegates to the Congress of Vienna.

11. A debate on the subject: Resolved, that the activities of Napoleon Bonaparte brought more good than harm to the world.

12. A map of the world in 1815 indicating transfers of territory that took place as a result of the Napoleonic Wars and the Congress of Vienna.

13. Continue your Chart of Trends in World Progress.

PLACES FOR FURTHER READING

Beard, *History of the United States*, 171-184, 188-201

Hayes, *Political and Social History of Modern Europe*, Volume I, Chapters XV, XVI; Volume II, 5-10

Robinson and Beard, *Development of Modern Europe*, IX, X, 411-424

Adams, *History of the French Nation*

Fisher, *Napoleon*

Guedalla, *The Partition of Europe*

Hazen, *Modern European History*

Johnston, *The Corsican*

Johnston, *Napoleon*

Joy, *Ten Englishmen of the Nineteenth Century*

Lowell, *The Eve of the French Revolution*

Mathews, *The French Revolution*

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Robinson and Beard, *Our Own Times*, Sections 231-347

Rose, *The Revolutionary and Napoleonic Era*

Tarbell, *Life of Napoleon Bonaparte*

Adams, *Red Caps and Lilies*

Bill, *The Clutch of the Corsican*

Brady, *The Sword Hand of Napoleon*

Brady, *The Two Captains*

Brooks, *A Boy of the First Empire*

Dickens, *A Tale of Two Cities*

Dumas, *Taking the Bastille*

Erckmann and Chatrian, *The Conscript*

Erckmann and Chatrian, *Waterloo*

Gras, *Reds of Midi*

Gras, *The White Terror*

Hugo, *Les Misérables*

Hugo, *Ninety-Three*

Lever, *Charles O'Malley*

Orczy, *A Sheaf of Bluebells*

The Scarlet Pimpernel

Sabatini, *Scaramouche*

Seaman, *When a Cobbler Ruled the King*

Seawell, *The Last Duchess of Belgrade*

Shaw, *The Man of Destiny*

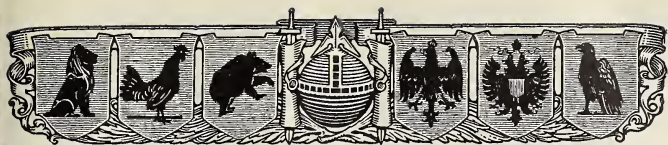
Thackeray, *Vanity Fair*

Weyman, *The Red Cockade*



THE LION OF LUCERNE

For an explanation of this picture, see page 453.



THE GREAT POWERS OF EUROPE

Cartoonists humorously use the lion, the bear, the eagle, and other birds and animals to represent different countries. Unfortunately, nations do not always behave any better than the animals that represent them.

XIII. NEW NATIONS AND A NEW NATIONALISM

Everywhere throughout the world the process of experiment in forms of government is going on in ceaseless round. . . . Every experiment in political organization that the human mind can suggest has had, or is having, its trials somewhere.—MUNRO

The story of Europe since 1815 seems from one point of view hopelessly confused. Changes in government, industry, and society are so intermingled that they cannot be separated. Suppose, however, we try to point out first the outstanding events in the political development of Europe from 1815 to 1914, taking the great nations one at a time. Their stories will overlap enough to bring out the fact that great movements affected many nations at the same time. We shall see two united nations taking form, and liberty and democracy having varied experiences in different lands.

Pointers for Our Study:

What special features of world progress must we observe in the nineteenth century?

Why, for a considerable period, did it seem as if Europe was going back to the conditions that existed before the French Revolution; and how was that movement checked?

Through what political changes did France pass on the way to democracy?

What new nations appeared on the map of Europe, and by what notable events was their destiny determined?

Where did liberty make the least headway?

How did Great Britain in particular make far-reaching gains in the direction of democracy?

252. General Conditions and Prospects after 1815.—After nations have been through a period of war or other great stress, people discover that they are more tired and worn out than they

had realized. Then they care for nothing so much as to be let alone and be quiet. That is why it was rather easy after 1815 for the politicians to have their own way who wanted Europe to forget the French Revolution. Heavy debts and taxes and hard times in business marked those years. The Congress of Vienna may be looked upon as marking both the end of one period and the beginning of another. You cannot understand the cycle of events through which Europe passed from 1789 to 1815 without knowing the main things that were done at Vienna. At the same time, the spirit of reaction that dictated the arrangements made there influenced mightily the history of Europe for the next half-century and more.

Yet nations had discovered that tyrants could be overthrown, and time after time during the nineteenth century the most courageous or reckless in many countries rose against despotism. In Great Britain changes came for the most part peacefully; step by step the people of that kingdom gained more control over their government. So we shall take particular notice of a gain for *democracy* — government by the people.

Another characteristic of the nineteenth century was the growth of *nationalism*. Nationalism often means a narrow kind of patriotism, though one *can* be patriotic without hating or despising other nations than his own. Nationalism also may signify the coming together under a recognized government of people who are related by race. Some — though not too much — of such spirit the Germans and Italians needed to develop for their own good. Other peoples, such as those under Austrian rule, wanted to be freed from rulers of another race and to govern themselves.

These two forces, democracy and nationalism, along with a tremendous change in industry known as the Industrial Revolution which began in the latter part of the eighteenth century, were the chief factors in transforming Europe and the world from what they were in 1815 to what they were a century later.

As you study this unit, keep in mind the map of Europe as it was in 1815 (facing page 472), and refer to this map and the one following page 518, as events are developed in this unit.

A reference to the diagram at the top of page 9 may help you to see the relation of the remaining units of our study to one another.

253. Metternich and His Policies. — France and Austria were centers of political interest on the continent of Europe for half a century. In Austria the mind which dominated and controlled everything for over thirty years was that of Clemens Metternich, at first Count and later Prince. He had no use for any of the new ideas that the French Revolution had put into people's minds. Only rulers and the upper social classes deserved any consideration, according to his way of thinking. Liberty was only for them; equality was a dream; fraternity existed only among monarchs, as far as it meant anything. "Sovereigns alone are entitled to guide the destinies of their peoples, and they are responsible to none but God. . . . Government is no more a subject for debate than religion is," said he.

He had pleasant social manners, in his way worked hard, was skillful as a diplomat, and, like Napoleon, was not bothered by conscience in getting the things done that he wanted. He thought well of himself. "My mind has never entertained error," he said once. Metternich seemed to have a good share of Europe hypnotized. Somehow he gained the reputation of having brought the wars to an end, and many looked upon him as a benefactor.

One of the first countries to suffer from Metternich's policy of repressing everything liberal was Germany. It was for the interests of Austria to keep the various states in Germany separate so that Austria could play them off one against another. When some people declared that it was right to kill tyrants for the sake of liberty, Metternich had an excuse for dealing harshly with districts where liberal ideas might be common. The universities were particularly subject to suspicion. Professors who felt like



METTERNICH

criticizing the policies of the government were discharged; secret meetings of all kinds were forbidden; censorship was established over all printed matter; and thousands were put in jail even for wearing the black, red, and gold colors, which were used by those who favored a united Germany.

At any time and in any country where people are allowed to say what they think, we are likely to find two points of view held by people who are equally honest and well-meaning. *Conservatives* will say, "Much good has come to us from the past which we ought to preserve. If we do make changes, it is best to move slowly and cautiously." *Liberals*, on the other hand, may reply, "Out of the past have also come evils that we should not tolerate. Our most important duty is to correct these."

For some time after 1815 not only aristocrats and kings, but many honest conservative people who would not deliberately favor tyranny sympathized with Metternich because they thought that movements which claimed to favor democracy, free speech, and other liberal purposes were a menace to law and order. This very fact made some liberals think, We shall have to work under cover and use force in order to make any impression on rulers who have no sympathy with any kind of progress and change.

Would it be possible for anyone in the United States to make himself master of the nation for over thirty years? Why do people who favor reforms in government and changes in the interest of the people harm their own cause by talking and acting in an extreme fashion?

254. The Holy Alliance and the Concert of Europe. — A shining example of Metternich's skill in playing off other people's ideas to serve his own ends is seen in the proposal often called the Holy Alliance. Czar Alexander I of Russia was in his way deeply religious and thought it was the duty of rulers as representatives of God to govern justly. So he proposed to other monarchs of his time — the king of Prussia and the emperor of Austria particularly — that they should make an agreement to govern their peoples in accordance with the principles of the Christian religion. It sounded very good; and although the monarchs of Austria and Prussia did not take the idea seriously, they did not want to hurt the Czar's feelings. So they accepted his proposal, and the agreement among them came to be called the *Holy Alliance*.

Metternich was also working up another movement, whose chief purpose was to enforce the carrying out of the agreements made in the Congress of Vienna. To do this he arranged a "Quadruple Alliance" including, at first, Austria, Russia, Prussia, and Great Britain. People often talked about the two alliances as if they were the same. Later France was brought into the combination. But Great Britain saw through Metternich's purposes and refused before long to have a part in carrying out his projects. Austria sent troops into Italy to put down rebellions there (1820, 1821), and the King of France was induced to send soldiers into Spain to help Ferdinand VII stay on the throne (1823). This kind of co-operation among the absolute monarchs was sometimes referred to as the *Concert of Europe*. Even after Great Britain dropped out, the Concert wielded considerable force; but instead of promoting the progress of Europe it was a powerful tool in Metternich's hands to use in putting down progressive movements anywhere.

On one occasion, however, some of the nations actually co-operated in behalf of freedom. That concerned Greece. When the Greeks rose in rebellion against their Turkish tyrants, they had the sympathy of most people in western Europe. The English poet, Lord Byron, not only wrote in behalf of Greek liberty, but with reckless enthusiasm went himself to fight for Greece and died on Greek soil. In 1827 the combined fleets of England, France, and Russia completely defeated the Turkish fleet in the bay of Navarino (na va rē'no). In 1829 the independence of Greece was recognized, and in 1831 a German prince was brought down to be king of the country.

Did other monarchs not take Czar Alexander's proposal seriously because they were deliberately selfish and dishonorable in their government? What was there about Greece to stir up the sympathies of other countries in its behalf? How long was it since Greece had been independent? If the Turks had been Christian in religion, do you think the European powers would have acted any differently toward the Greek Revolution?

255. The Holy Alliance and the Monroe Doctrine.—The Spanish provinces in Central and South America had gradually been winning a struggle for independence. When Ferdinand VII

INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION SPREADS				Sepoy Rebellion 1857	Mutsuhito Emperor, Japan 1867	Partition of Africa	Hague Conference 1899
Beethoven	Goethe			Kingdom of Italy	German Empire proclaimed		Röntgen
Congress of Vienna 1814-15	Revolutions in Europe 1830	Revolutions in Europe 1848		1861	1871	European alliances	
Napoleon	Railroads	1st Reform Bill (Eng.) 1832		Napoleon III	French constitution 1875	Pasteur	
Latin American wars for independence			1837	Darwin	2d Reform Bill 1867	3d Reform Bill 1884	Kipling
Louisiana Purchase 1803	Monroe Doctrine 1823				Victoria		
Fulton				U. S. Civil War 1861-5	Dominion of Canada 1867	Edison electric lamp 1879	Spanish War 1898
			Morse			Bell	

1801 A.D.

19TH CENTURY A.D.

1900

Refer to this time-graph often as this unit and the next two are studied.

of Spain was safely settled on the throne in his own country (1823), it occurred to him and to some members of the Holy Alliance that they might help him regain authority over his lost colonies in the New World. But George Canning, Foreign Secretary in the British Cabinet, let it be known that Great Britain had no sympathy with any effort on the part of the Holy Alliance to win back Spain's American colonies for her. To make his opposition still more effective, Canning proposed that the United States make a joint declaration with Great Britain in regard to this matter.

President Monroe's Secretary of State, John Quincy Adams, believed it would be better for the United States to act by itself. In December, 1823, the President included in his message to Congress the famous *Monroe Doctrine*, which, among other things, declared: (1) that the New World was no longer open to colonization by European powers; (2) that any attempt to extend their systems of government (that is, absolute monarchies) to any portion of the western hemisphere would be dangerous to our peace and safety; (3) that any attempt to overthrow the newly-born independent governments in Central and South America would be looked upon as evidence of an unfriendly disposition toward the United States.

When it was known that both Great Britain and the United States were definitely set against any such action, Ferdinand and his friends in the "Alliance" abandoned any thought of intervening in South America. We may think that the Monroe Doctrine

has been a cardinal principle of purely *American* policy. But, after all, it is just one of the many instances in which *European* politics directly affected the development of the New World.

Do you suppose the United States would have announced its Monroe Doctrine if Great Britain had not made her attitude known first? Mention other cases in which events or movements in the history of the United States were wholly or partly the result of conditions existing in Europe.

256. France under the Restored Bourbons. — The history of France through the nineteenth century will make a good core or center for the developments in all Europe during that time. When anything happened in France or to France, a great part of the rest of the continent seemed to be affected by it. When France had a cold, all Europe sneezed, it was said.

After Napoleon was beaten at Waterloo, Louis XVIII came back and started his rule in France over again. He had given France a constitution known as the Charter of 1814, which seemed for that time remarkably liberal. It guaranteed freedom of the press, religious liberty, and a form of government somewhat like that of England. But Louis insisted on *giving* this charter to the country himself so as to make it clear that nothing had happened to the divine right of kings and that the king continued to be the source of authority. As Louis XVIII grew older and fatter, he lost control of his own government, and it became steadily more reactionary.

When Louis XVIII died in 1824, he was followed on the throne by his brother Charles X. It was a common saying that the Bourbons never learned anything and never forgot anything. Liberty, equality, and fraternity meant nothing to Charles. Under him it was proposed to pay much money to the nobles who had lost their lands during the Revolution, and to bring back under the control of the clergy the public schools of the country. Although the qualifications for voters already were so high because of property requirements that only one in seventy of the men could vote, Charles wanted to make that number still less. Even Metternich told Charles he would have to yield to the sentiment against his policies or else lose his throne, but Charles would take no advice of that kind from anybody.

Of the three kings of France — Louis XVI, Louis XVIII, and Charles X — which do you consider least fitted and which most fitted to be a king? How do you think Louis XVI would have acted in 1830? Does the return of Louis XVIII to the throne in France suggest the return of any English monarch to his throne? What likenesses or differences do you see?

257. 1830 — A Year of Revolutions. — In the elections of 1830, the liberal element gained control of the lower house of the French Parliament, the Chamber of Deputies. Charles X then published



THROWING UP BARRICADES IN THE STREETS OF PARIS

Culver Service

Scenes like this have happened several times in the course of riots and rebellions in Paris. It was one way of interfering with the activities of police or soldiers.

edicts suspending parts of the constitution. The events that followed are often called the *July Revolution*, because they occurred in that month. Paris newspaper men, led by Louis Thiers (ti ār'), of whom we shall hear more later, declared that France should resist these edicts. They had not intended anything like an armed revolution, but a considerable number of radicals in Paris who took advantage of this opportunity, raised barricades of paving stones in the streets and started a real revolt. Charles' troops were not willing to fire on the revolutionists and did not support him effectively. He soon saw that his days as king were over and got out of the country as fast as he could, taking refuge in England. There was no fighting in France in 1830 outside of

Paris, for the rest of the country would accept practically anything that suited Paris. But other parts of Europe caught the revolutionary germ from Paris.

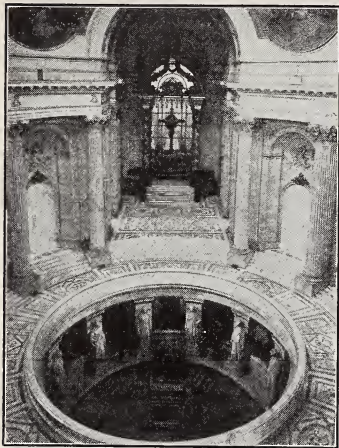
Belgium had never been satisfied with her union with Holland. The King of Holland had unwisely tried to force Dutch ideas of religion and education upon the people of Belgium, who were largely different in race, language, and religion. This policy led to a revolt in Brussels which spread to other provinces in Belgium (1830). The King of Holland found it too much of an undertaking to suppress the Belgians. So Belgium became an independent kingdom (1831), with what at the time was the most liberal constitution in Europe. Here was the first break in the settlements made at Vienna. Belgium's independence was further guaranteed in 1839 when the five leading powers of Europe — Great Britain, France, Prussia, Austria, and Russia — signed an agreement that the territory of Belgium should be entirely free from invasion by other armies in any wars in which Belgium had no part.

The Poles under Russian rule also rose in revolt, against Czar Nicholas I. Austrian soldiers helped the Czar suppress this rebellion, and Poland lost the constitution which Czar Alexander had given her and became simply a province in the Russian empire. Other rebellions in Italy and Germany made comparatively little headway — Metternich saw to that.

Why would a king try to make all his subjects speak one language when no one language was common to the entire country? How could a little country like Belgium succeed in a revolution when in Poland and Italy such movements were suppressed without much, if any, gain?

258. France under Her Bourgeois King. — Just what would be the outcome of the "July Revolution" of 1830 in France was not certain at first. The radicals wanted to set up a republic under their own control; but the majority of Frenchmen, remembering 1793, were afraid of bringing back another reign of terror. The middle class and such sincere lovers of France as Lafayette thought that what France needed was a king with a more liberal constitution. Another branch of the Bourbon family, the House of Orleans, was recognized; and Louis Philippe (fē lēp'), foremost of that branch, became king.

Louis Philippe had a rather checkered career. He had been in the first French Revolution on the side of the revolutionists, and had been in exile outside France for many years. He made no



NAPOLEON'S TOMB

In the so-called Hôtel des Invalides the body of the great French soldier is laid away. This costly memorial testifies to the regard that the French people had for their first emperor.

at rest in a magnificent tomb in Paris. This performance, however, only increased the people's regard for the great Napoleon.

These were days, too, when industrial changes of importance were going on in France as in England (§§ 296, 297). Factories were built, and factory towns increased in population. The revolution of 1830 had been a "bourgeois," or middle class, revolution. Few of the working men, however, could meet the requirements for voting; and the advocates of a republic constantly played on this injustice in order to make the king unpopular. The most radical element among the people were the socialists, who wanted the government to take over and manage all the great industries of the country. Critics of the government were harshly treated, and discontent became serious.

pretensions of "divine right," and liked to have himself called "Citizen King." He would walk the streets of Paris dressed like an ordinary man, carrying a green cotton umbrella under his arm, and sent his children to the public schools. Yet for some reason the people of France did not take to him whole-heartedly. Friends of Charles X wanted that branch of the family back. Enthusiastic admirers of Napoleon, now commonly called Bonapartists, wanted the Bonaparte family restored. The king himself, in trying to be popular, had the body of Napoleon brought from St. Helena and with great pomp and display laid permanently

Do you think the people of other countries which still have kings today like to have their kings dress and act democratically?

259. 1848 — Another Year of Revolutions. — France got very restless again in 1848; and so did Europe, as it had in 1830. In fact 1848 was distinctly *the* year for revolutions in nineteenth-century Europe.

In France this was called the *February Revolution*, because it broke out in that month. The liberal leaders wanted to hold a banquet on the evening of Washington's birthday, but the government forbade it. Riots followed in Paris. There was some conflict between the king's troops and the rioters. Louis Philippe concluded that his day was over, and, calling himself Mr. Smith, took refuge in London. Then the people of Paris set up a provisional government and arranged for the choice of a national assembly to make a new constitution. Paris once more was responsible for a revolution in France. This time the revolution passed into the hands of leaders who wanted a republic, and shortly that kind of government was proclaimed. Thus the "Second Republic" came into being in France.

In January of this same year Metternich wrote to a friend: "The world is very sick. The only thing certain is that tremendous changes are coming." Other countries just seemed to be waiting for somebody in France to start something. So not long after the February Revolution in that country uprisings occurred in many parts of Europe. Metternich, hiding himself in a laundry wagon, got out of Vienna in a hurry. In Rome an attempt was made to set up a republic, but this revolution was put down by the Pope's troops with the help of soldiers sent from France. King Charles Albert of Sardinia gave his country a constitution, but was defeated when he undertook to drive Austria out of Italy by war. Hungary also revolted from Austria and tried to set up a republic under the leadership of Louis Kossuth (kosh oot'). This rebellion was put down by Austria with the help of Russian troops.

Lovers of free government had high hopes about revolutionary movements started in Germany. An assembly came together at Frankfort to consider the working out of some plan for the union of Germany. But the Frankfort Assembly, instead of getting down to business, wasted six months or more talking about what

they would do. When they decided to offer the crown of a united Germany to the King of Prussia, it was too late. King Frederick William IV had been told by the Austrian leaders that he should not accept such an offer. So he made the "great refusal," as it was sometimes called. He would not take a crown from the people themselves. If he could not claim it by divine right, he was willing to refuse it altogether.

So everywhere except in France the revolutions came to almost nothing. But the ideas back of them were not dead.

There was a great deal of enthusiasm in the United States for Louis Kossuth, the Hungarian leader. Why do you suppose this country did not help him? Was Europe any better off after getting rid of Metternich, if the revolutions of 1848 brought no lasting changes in government? Did the king of Prussia act wisely in refusing the German crown? Why do you suppose Austria cared whether the Prussian king accepted the offer made him? Would the Frankfurt Parliament have done better to have given the crown to somebody and *then* talked about how they would have him make use of it?

260. The Second Republic in France. — This time (1848) it was clear that the majority of the French people thought they were tired of monarchy and wanted something else. For a while there was a bitter struggle between those who merely wanted the government changed to a republic and those who wanted to put into practice socialist theories. Louis Blanc (blān), the socialist leader, sincerely believed in the best ideals of socialism; but many of his followers were wild fanatics who raved about "the crime of private property."

In order to quiet the socialists, some of the advocates of a republic agreed to set up so-called *national workshops*. All who were employed in them were paid two francs a day if there was work to do, and one franc if there was not. This scheme did not truly represent Blanc's ideas, and those who proposed the plan did not expect it to succeed. When the assembly met which was to draw up the new constitution, it abolished the national workshops, believing that the government could not stand their expense.

This act caused an immediate outbreak on the part of the radical leaders and men on the payroll of the national workshops. So for a second time in the same year, Paris saw barricades thrown up in the streets and bloody riots taking place. Finally the

republicans were successful, and the socialist movement was broken down. About 20,000 people either lost their lives or were exiled from the country as a result of the terrible struggle of these "June Days" of 1848.

Has anything corresponding to the "national workshops" ever been tried in the United States?

But still France thought it wanted to be a republic. A constitution was finally adopted which provided for a president and a legislative assembly to be elected by the people of France. Instead of choosing as president a man who had been active in working for a republic, the French people elected Louis Napoleon, the nephew of Napoleon the Great. He had little to recommend him but his name, but that gave him a 3,000,000 majority. Twice before, this man had tried to seize control of the government, but had failed ridiculously. Yet he had the notion that he was an instrument of Providence picked out to direct the destinies of France.

Since the constitution provided that after one term of four years a president could not immediately have another term, Louis Napoleon tried unsuccessfully to get the constitution changed so that a president could be re-elected at once. Then he decided to take the government into his own hands anyway. On the anniversary of the battle of Austerlitz and the crowning of Napoleon I as Emperor (December 2, 1851), he put over a surprising "coup d'état." During the previous night he had the political leaders who might have opposed his plan arrested, and in the morning people saw posted all over the city of Paris placards declaring that a new government was set up with Louis Napoleon as the head of it. Soldiers kept Paris under control. Then he had a new constitution drawn up making himself president for ten years. Louis Napoleon, just a year after this "coup d'état," proclaimed himself Emperor as Napoleon III; and just as in the case of his famous ancestor, the people voted for the new title by an overwhelming majority. So the Second Republic was even shorter-lived than the first one.

Do you think the French could have cared very much for a republic if in so short a time they would allow it to be transformed into an empire? Was there any time in the history of the United States when a change of that kind could perhaps have taken place?

261. Louis Napoleon as Napoleon III. — To look at, Louis Napoleon was not particularly impressive. Neither was his uncle. The only thing which could play in their favor was success in something or other. Louis Napoleon had his uncle's success to



NAPOLEON III

Some who disliked him called him Napoleon the Little. The style of his mustache and beard were not uncommon at the time he was the head of the French government.

help him on ; but he was not entirely lacking in brains himself, and he honestly wished well for his country.

He had roads, canals, schools, and churches built, and encouraged trade in many ways. He made Paris the queen of European cities in appearance. He got the good will of workmen by building houses for them to live in and arranging for insurance against death and accident. For ten years or so France prospered so well under his rule that Frenchmen took him at his own estimate as a statesman.

For about the same length of time, too, he succeeded in giving France a high standing

in international affairs. "The empire is peace" was a favorite saying of his. Yet he did not keep it at peace all the time. In 1854 he joined Great Britain and Turkey in making war on Russia (the Crimean War, § 283). Then, when the time came to make peace, he had the peace conference held in Paris, and that made it appear as if Paris was the natural place for European nations to go for important business. In 1859 and 1860 he helped the King of Sardinia against the Austrians in northern Italy. He really did have sympathy with the Italians who were struggling for freedom ; besides, he received as a part of the bargain for his aid the districts of Nice and Savoy. But Napoleon was too kind-hearted to see his soldiers suffering on foreign soil without knowing why they did it. So after two battles in which

the French and their Italian allies were successful, he made peace with the Austrians.

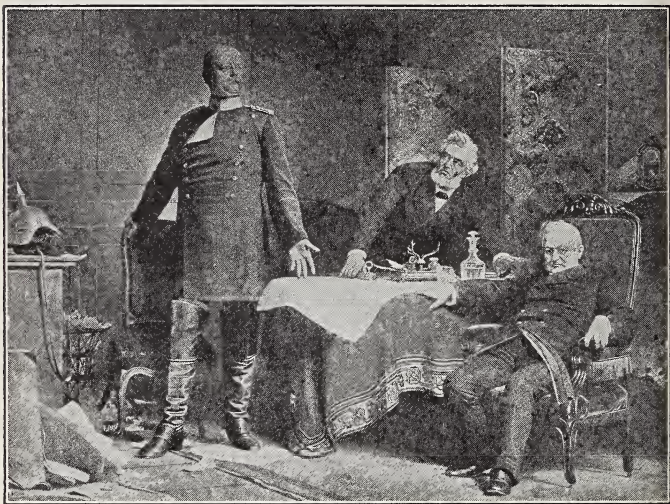
Napoleon's first big mistake was an effort to set up an empire under French control in Mexico, which had been in disorder for many years, and whose financial affairs were in bad shape. While the American Civil War was going on, he induced Archduke Maximilian of Austria to accept the title of Emperor in Mexico. By the time the Civil War was over and the victorious Union government was able to do something about this violation of the Monroe Doctrine, Napoleon had already realized his mistake and called back home his French troops. Maximilian was then left to the tender mercies of the Mexicans, who shot him. Napoleon III guessed wrong as to the winners of the American Civil War, and his sympathy with the Confederate states was no secret. In this matter he had for a time the co-operation of the British government but they "played safe" and would not recognize the Confederate states as independent.

What motive could Napoleon III have had in sympathizing with the Confederate states in the American Civil War? Would you say that it was true of both "Napoleon the Great" and "Napoleon the Little" that misfortune came because they tried to do too much?

262. Disaster to France — the Franco-Prussian War. — Napoleon III wanted to extend France's territory in Europe and hoped that he could somehow add a part of the Rhinelands to France. But his ambitions brought him in contact with one of the craftiest and most conscienceless statesmen of the nineteenth century — Bismarck, Chancellor of Prussia. Bismarck was planning to get all the German states to unite under the leadership of Prussia, and figured on a war with France in which the states of South Germany would unite with Prussia for the war and then go into a political union with it — and the plan worked out just as he intended.

Then in 1868 the throne of Spain became vacant. When Bismarck succeeded in having it offered to a member of the Hohenzollern family, Napoleon demanded that this candidate, Prince Leopold, withdraw. After Leopold withdrew, Napoleon insisted that the King of Prussia, William I, should promise that never would a Hohenzollern accept the crown of Spain. "Never" is

a long time, and William I would not make such a promise. Bismarck was afraid that negotiations between Napoleon III and the King of Prussia might be settled peacefully. So, when a conference had been held between the French Emperor's ambassador and the King of Prussia, he saw to it that a report of it — the so-called "Ems dispatch" — was given out in such a form as to



BISMARCK DICTATING TERMS TO THIERS

In this scene the painter Wagner portrays a conference between Bismarck and the French statesman Thiers preceding the Treaty of Frankfort, which ended the Franco-Prussian War. The proud, unyielding Bismarck had no mercy on Thiers, though Thiers personally was not responsible for the war or the collapse of the French government.

excite both the Germans and the French. So Bismarck finally got his war, which Napoleon declared on Prussia, July 19, 1870.

The French had boasted that they were "more than ready." Everything was in shape "to the last gaiter button," so they said. But evidently something was wrong; for to the surprise of everybody the war was a terribly tragic affair for Napoleon III and for France. German troops invaded French territory and in about

six weeks penned up a whole French army along with the Emperor at Sedan and forced them to surrender (September 1). Another French army, already surrounded at Metz, surrendered a few weeks later. Then the Germans pressed on to Paris. Under the lead of Gambetta and Thiers heroic vain efforts at resistance followed. For four months Paris suffered all the tortures that go with starvation and a hostile bombardment. After being reduced to such a point that cats and rats brought a good price for food, the city surrendered in January, 1871.

As a particular humiliation to the French, Bismarck had the King of Prussia crowned as German emperor in the palace of the old French kings at Versailles. The terms of peace finally arranged at Frankfort were extremely distressing to the French. Bismarck compelled France to give up Alsace and part of Lorraine, with their valuable deposits of coal and iron, and to pay an indemnity of five billion francs (nearly \$1,000,000,000 at that time), with the understanding that German troops were to stay in France until the indemnity was paid.

Do you think Napoleon III was the only one to be blamed for the disaster that came to France?

263. How France Again Became a Republic. — Napoleon III's government went to pieces when he was taken prisoner. The French Deputies took his office away and organized in a hurry a "Government of National Defense" which declared France to be a republic. But nobody really knew what kind of government the country was going to have. Just as in 1848, a terrible civil war broke out which showed that Frenchmen could be just as cruel to Frenchmen as Germans could. Radicals in Paris got control of the city and proposed to turn the government of France into a confederation of "communes." The rest of the country did not care to accept a government of that kind. A National Assembly which had been chosen to re-establish a government for France set up its headquarters at Versailles. This Assembly called in troops from all over France to crush the radicals in Paris. Once more Paris had to go through a siege. After two months the city surrendered to the regular government's troops. At least 10,000 Parisians had been killed; many thousands were

shot after being taken prisoner; and 8000 or more were sent to prison or exile after the fighting was over.

The statesman and historian Thiers was chosen president of the temporary government set up by the National Assembly. He was a sincere patriot and an able man, but in about two years he had to resign. In that time the country paid off the indemnity to Germany, and German soldiers left France. But still it had not settled down to any permanent form of government.

It was practically agreed at one time that the Duke of Chambord (shan bōr') should be made king. Then he showed that he was a true member of the Bourbon family, who "never learned anything," by insisting that the white flag of the Bourbons should be the flag of France. This meant that Frenchmen would have to abandon the red, white, and blue. That they would not do.

Finally the National Assembly in 1875 adopted a constitution for France. They had decided by a majority of just one vote that the head of the government should be called the President of the Republic. Some hoped that it would not be long before they could change the constitution by putting in a king instead of a president. But the great mass of the people came to feel that only the aristocrats and those who wanted special privileges desired to have a monarchy restored. The Third Republic lasted about twice as long as any other French government since 1789. Now a Fourth Republic is trying to make France strong again.

Why would any large number of Frenchmen want to have a king or an emperor when it was so easy to see what trouble most of their kings and emperors had got them into? Would a republic have been set up, do you think, if the French had not been so badly beaten in the war with Prussia? Watch and see what happens to France in our day.

264. Problems of Republican France. — One important problem with which the statesmen under the Republic had to deal was the relation between the French government and the Roman Catholic Church. Though the French people were, and still are, overwhelmingly Catholic, many Frenchmen felt that some of the Church leaders were too anxious to control the government. Under the Republic, also, free schools were greatly increased, and as these expanded, the influence of Church leaders through the Church schools became less. In 1905 the Concordat which had

been arranged between Napoleon I and the Catholic Church was abolished. The government no longer paid the salaries of clergymen, and *all* churches, Catholic and otherwise, now depended for support on the contributions of their members.

Internally France was prosperous most of the time under the Third Republic until World War I broke out. Ever since the estates once held by great lords and other landowners were broken up, France, more than any other nation in Europe, has been a country of small farmers and small shops. Hardly anywhere, except in northern France, have great factories been built such as Germany, England, and the United States know so well. Paris became one of the great financial centers of the world — so much so that France used to be called “the banker of Europe.”

During the nineteenth century, before France became a republic, she started out on an extensive scale to acquire colonies. She wanted them to furnish raw material for her manufactures, and thought that in them there was a place for the investment of the savings of Frenchmen. Most valuable of all her possessions is Algeria, on the northern coast of Africa. It is in many respects as advanced as France herself, and France recognized it by giving it representation in her legislature. We shall have more to say about French colonies later (§§ 325, 333, 334, 395).

On the continent of Europe the policy of France up to 1914 was largely dictated by her fear and hatred of Germany. Frenchmen felt that they had suffered a terrible wrong in the treatment Bismarck imposed upon them. So for defense against another German attack or some other possible foe, France has kept one of the biggest standing armies in the world. All Frenchmen had to serve for at least two years in the army unless excused for a very limited number of reasons, and by 1913 that term of service was increased to three years. This dislike and dread of Germany led France to become steadily more friendly toward Russia and Great Britain.

One affair which brought discredit upon some Frenchmen of prominence centered around a Jew named Alfred Dreyfus (dri'fus). He was accused of selling French military secrets to a foreign government, and after a make-believe trial was degraded and sentenced to exile on the terrible Devil's Island, off the coast of South

America. When many who believed Dreyfus was innocent did not dare to do anything about the matter, the French writer Zola boldly took up Dreyfus' cause. Finally a new trial was gained for him, and it was proved that the ones who had accused Dreyfus of selling military secrets had done so themselves. Something more than a question of Dreyfus' innocence was involved in this case; it was one instance of the hostility to Jews which has from time to time been exhibited in several countries of Europe.

Do you think France was justified in building up a big army and demanding military service of practically all of her young men? In what ways might it be better for the Roman Catholic Church not to be tied up with the government so closely as it was under the Concordat? Why is a country with many small farms likely to be better off than one with a few estates of great size? What occasions in other countries before or since the Dreyfus case might serve as examples of anti-Jewish feeling?

265. The French Republic, 1875-1940. — No great change occurred in the government of France under the constitution of 1875 until 1940. An amendment was adopted in 1884 which declared that the republican form of government was "not subject to repeal." The national government had a closely centralized control over the ninety departments and 38,000 communes into which France is divided. All French men had the right to vote, but France has not yet extended suffrage to women.

The government of France was, in some respects, like that of both the United States and Great Britain. The law-making division of the government included two houses — the Senate and the Chamber of Deputies. The Senate had over 300 members chosen by officers of local governments for terms of nine years and so arranged that the terms of one-third of the members expired each third year. The Chamber of Deputies had over 600 members, who were chosen by popular vote for four years. France had a President whose place in affairs was much more like that of the British King than of the President of the United States. He was elected for seven years by the two houses of the law-making body meeting together at Versailles. He might be elected for a second term, but that happened only once. The President had no veto power, but he appointed the Cabinet or Ministry. This, however, was responsible to the law-making branch and not to

him. If the Prime Minister, who was the actual head of the government while he remained in office, could not control the Chamber of Deputies, he resigned so as to let somebody else try it. He could not dismiss the Chamber and have a new election as could be done in Great Britain.

Changes in the makeup of the Cabinet were rather frequent. As many as twelve or fifteen parties might have members in the



THE LOUVRE

Publishers' Photo

This famous palace, which is one of the art centers of the world, was started in 1527 by King Francis I. More was added to it by Napoleon I, and it was finished by Napoleon III. The courtyard, which occupies much of the picture, is an example of many of the artificial scenes of beauty which the planners of Paris have created.

Chamber of Deputies. Since it was very rare that any one party had a majority of votes in the Chamber, nothing could be accomplished except through combinations of different parties. As alliances of parties were likely to be short-lived, a Premier and his Cabinet could stay in office only as long as they could hold three or four political groups together. The result was that the average life of a particular Cabinet was less than a year. Sudden and frequent changes took place which would have been embarrassing in Great Britain or the United States. One man, Aristide Briand (ar is tēd brē ān'), was premier thirteen times.

Point out as many differences as you can between the constitution of France and the constitution of the United States, with reference to the way it was adopted, the kind of government that was set up, and the way it works. Which do you consider better for a country, to have just two major political parties or several?

266. Germany, 1815 to 1848. — Now let us go back and see what had been happening in Germany. Metternich saw to it that there was no really effective German union while he had anything to say about it. A combination of German states, called the Germanic Confederation, was formed in 1815, but Austria was the chief state in it and president of it, and it was given little authority, anyway. Since both Austria and Prussia wanted to be the leading German state and were jealous of each other, any real union was almost impossible.

In 1834, however, under the lead of Prussia, a Zollverein (tsöl-fer in), or customs union, was formed. There had been separate tariff laws in each of the German states, and the numerous duties that had to be paid on goods passing from one part of Germany to another were a frightful nuisance and a serious barrier to business improvement. So the members of the Zollverein agreed to have free trade among themselves, but to lay import duties on goods brought into the union from other countries. Ultimately all the German states but Austria belonged to the Zollverein.

We have already noticed how Metternich "sat on the lid" to prevent liberal movements in politics or the free discussion of current problems in the universities or by the people at large. A few German monarchs gave constitutions to their people, but this did not happen in Prussia until 1850. Germany waited a long time before it found one who could lead it toward union; and when such a leader did appear, he was not at all the kind of person the liberal thinkers of Germany wanted.

Why was it harder for the states of Germany to form a real German union than for the thirteen original states to organize the United States of America? If the Zollverein worked well, would movements for political unity be encouraged?

267. How the Mid-Century Revolutions Affected Germany and Austria. — Liberal thinkers in Germany hoped that when the Frankfort Parliament met in 1848, that big year of revolutions.

the unity of Germany was at hand. They were terribly disappointed by the "great refusal" of King Frederick William IV of Prussia. Many thousands of liberal Germans, disgusted with the way things were going in their own country, moved to the New World. They formed an important element among the people of the United States, especially in the Middle West.

The year 1848 alarmed the Austrian emperor, Ferdinand I, for a little while. He promised Austria a constitution and gave one to Bohemia, but he soon was able to crush every suggestion of a liberal government in both sections. A rebellion in Hungary was suppressed with the help of Russian troops. The emperor did abolish serfdom in Austria and thus gained the good will of the peasants among his people. Emperor Ferdinand I retired from office, and his nephew Francis Joseph took his place and began his long and troubled reign. Francis Joseph refused to pay any attention to any of Ferdinand I's promises for reforms. 1848, therefore, brought to Austria and her subjects no change except a different emperor and the abandonment of feudalism in Austria.

Do you suppose the numerous revolutions of 1848 would make tyrannical rulers more cautious or more severe? If Germany was to be united under either Prussia or Austria, do you think there was much choice between them?

268. How Prussia Became a Military Power. — In 1861 when Frederick William IV died, a new king came to the throne of Prussia. Already this man, William I, the brother of Frederick William, was sixty-four years old; but there was nothing of the "sere and yellow leaf" about him. He allowed the Prussian constitution of 1850 to continue in operation, but he did not let it worry him much. He was somewhat more progressive than his brother had been, though still a believer in divine right. His chief of staff, Count von Moltke (fōn molt'kè), was one of Europe's ablest soldiers.

Prince Otto von Bismarck became William's chief minister. He had served his country in the diplomatic corps in France and Russia, and he knew those countries well. He was forceful, determined, and willing to do anything whatever that might put through his program, and he had nothing but contempt for any constitution that might stand in his way. *He* brought about German union.

King William and Bismarck had to get more money to maintain the Prussian army and to increase it as they desired. Year after year, for five years, the lower house of the Prussian parliament



Culver Service

WILLIAM I

At first King of Prussia and then German Emperor. In the background are Bismarck and Moltke.

refused to approve any additional military expenses. But Bismarck did not allow a little thing like that to stop him. He advised his king to go ahead and collect the necessary taxes. Never mind the Prussian constitution!

Bismarck figured that if his program was successful, the people would not care how it was put through. He would not permit the newspapers or anyone else to criticize his policies publicly, though there was plenty of discontent at first. He saw that the Prussian army was equipped with rifles of the best make then known and insisted upon three years' service for every enrolled young

man instead of two. As the army steadily grew stronger, he had less and less to fear from any opposition.

Bismarck believed war was the natural means for a state to make itself strong. "Germany does not look to Prussia's liberalism but to her power," he said. "The great questions of the day are not decided by speeches and majority votes . . . but by blood and iron." "Blood and iron" — that was the keynote of everything that followed.

Do you think William I was justified in wanting to strengthen Prussia as a military power? Are rulers ever justified in disregarding their country's constitution?

269. Bismarck's Three Wars to Unite Germany. — To bring about a united Germany with Prussia at the head of it, Bismarck deliberately planned a program hardly equaled in history for

cunning, ruthlessness, and seeming success. Since there could be no real German unity with both Austria and Prussia included, he had first to find some way to get Austria out of German politics. A series of three wars — “blood and iron” — achieved everything he sought for.

The first of these wars was with Denmark. The duchies of Schleswig (shles'vik) and Holstein (höl'shtin) were united with Denmark by “personal union” — that is, the Danish king was also their king. When the King of Denmark mistakenly decided to make these duchies a part of Denmark, the Germans, who made up a majority of their population, objected. Bismarck then induced Austria to join Prussia in making war on Denmark to prevent the annexation of Schleswig and Holstein. The two strong powers beat little Denmark (1863–1864), and the Danish king lost the two provinces.

The next step was to pick a quarrel with Austria. It was easy to do that by raising an argument over what should be done with the districts taken from Denmark. So in 1866 the “Seven Weeks' War” broke out between the two powers. To everyone's amazement the Prussian army occupied some German states and then invaded Bohemia and completely defeated the Austrians in the battle of Sado'wa. Austria now was forced to agree to withdraw from German affairs and to consent to a union of German states under the leadership of Prussia. To put additional pressure on Austria, Bismarck had induced the newly-formed kingdom of Italy also to make war on her; and as a part of the peace arrangements, Austria had to give up most of Venetia to Italy.

Now, with Austria out, Bismarck went to work to unite the German states. Those in northern Germany came together in the North German Confederation (1867). It was a strong union under Prussian leadership, but four of the southern German states were still a little suspicious of Prussia and were not ready to join.

It took one more war to get them in. That was the war with France. Emperor Napoleon III of France, who had thought that Austria would probably beat Prussia, still was sure *he* could do it, anyway. We have already learned what followed. The German victory, in which the armies of South Germany had joined with those of Prussia and the other northern states, produced great

enthusiasm for German unity. All the states of Germany united to form a new empire, and to install into office in the famous royal palace at Versailles William I, King of Prussia, as the German Emperor. Now a united Germany — a real German *Empire* — built by Bismarck and his Prussian king in ten years, had a place on the map of Europe. German nationalism, denied realization in 1815 and 1851, had triumphed. (Contrast the place of Germany on the maps facing or following pages 472 and 518.)

Is it possible to tell the story of Bismarck's wars for German unity without seeming to justify and even glorify war? Do you think German unity could have been accomplished without war? Why do you suppose other countries did not realize how strong Prussia had become by 1866?

270. The New German Empire. — For the next forty years the German Empire and the United States of America were the most outstanding examples of successful *federations* in the world; but they differed greatly. In the United States the states were supposed to be politically equal. In Germany the different members were recognized somewhat in accordance with their actual strength, and Prussia was far more powerful than any other member. The German Empire was almost a federation of monarchies. Not only was the German emperor also king of Prussia, but there were kings in Bavaria and Saxony, and other rulers of states had monarchical titles.

Everything was so skillfully planned that all real power was exercised by the Kaiser (kī'zer) or Emperor and his ministers and generals. There were two assemblies in the German government. The lower house, the *Reichstag* (riks'täk), though elected by popular vote, was sometimes said to be only a debating society, for it could talk, but had little real influence. The upper house, the *Bundesrat* (böön'des rät'), was composed of representatives appointed by the heads of the various German states. It had much more power than the Reichstag and originated almost all laws. The chief minister of the government was the *chancellor*. He was appointed by the emperor. Unlike Great Britain and France, Germany did not make its ministers responsible to the representatives of the people.

As long as the German government was honestly and efficiently carried on, the people in general might not realize how small a part

in it they actually did have. They had always been used to rulers who interfered in the minutest private family affairs ; and so now, when police and soldiers and other signs of autocratic power played a prominent part in the everyday life of the German people, they did not seem to care very much, if only Germany was glorified in the world.

If Americans had been living under such a government as that of the German Empire and enjoying prosperity most of the time, do you think there would have been much opposition to it? Would it have been safe to organize a united Germany without giving extensive powers to somebody?

271. Bismarck as the Iron Chancellor. — Bismarck not only built the Empire but set it on what seemed a firm foundation. As the "Iron Chancellor," he soon found a place among the leaders of the continent of Europe. He had the wisdom to know about how far it was safe to go. He saw that after his great project of unifying Germany had been achieved, it was well for him to keep on good terms with his neighbors.

In the course of the next few years Bismarck openly sought the good will and co-operation of Austria — and why not? — for here were two empires, neighbors in Europe, each representing ideas of autocratic government and having many interests in common. In 1882 Germany, Austria, and Italy were brought together in the Triple Alliance, under which each country was pledged to aid its associates in any war brought on them by another power. If Bismarck and his successors had been equally fortunate in keeping Russia's friendship, you would be reading a different story today in world history.

A part of Bismarck's program was to make Germany an industrial power. Very direct aid was given to German manufacturers, and a protective tariff system was set up to help them. Great efforts were made to build up an extensive foreign trade. "Made in Germany" came to be a sort of by-word in the industrial field, and soon Germany was the second greatest manufacturing power in Europe. To expand her commerce further, Germany set out to get colonies, and soon acquired some in Africa and in the islands in the Pacific Ocean.

In this commercial expansion Germany inevitably became a rival of Great Britain. It was not long before the British realized

this; and it was harder to keep relations friendly as this rivalry became steadily keener. So Germany, while keeping her army highly efficient, began to build up her navy too; and in the course of thirty or forty years had one that was second only to that of Great Britain.

As chancellor, Bismarck had troubles as well as successes. For several years he was engaged in a "Kulturkampf" (kōōl toor'-kämpf), or conflict over education, with the leaders of the Catholic Church. Bismarck tried to overthrow the Catholic schools and to drive out of Germany the members of Catholic religious orders. "We shall not go to Canossa," he said. But he found he had tried to do too much, and little by little he yielded most of the points in controversy with the Catholics.

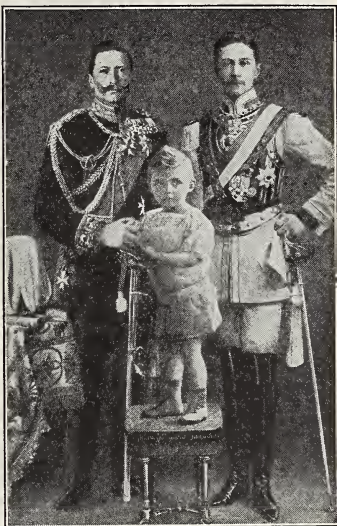
What did Bismarck mean by "going to Canossa"?

Bismarck also had his troubles with the Socialists. A German, Karl Marx, was one of the leading Socialist writers of Europe. Bismarck, believing that the Socialists were dangerous to orderly government, perhaps even disloyal, had harsh laws passed against them and drove many out of the country. Then, to reduce their influence, he turned around and had other laws passed providing for a number of things which the Socialists wanted. For instance, insurance systems for workers against accident and illness were established, supported by contributions from the workers, the employers, and the government. Laws were enacted to promote good working conditions in factories. The first pure food laws of any country were passed. An old-age pension system was started. Employment bureaus were established to help provide jobs for workers. In short, a very extensive program of *paternalism* was set up—the government doing many things for the people, whether the people wanted them done or not. Yet this program did not go far enough to please the Socialists, and the Socialist party was about the only group that dared publicly to criticize the government's policies.

Other problems, sometimes troublesome, grew out of efforts to Germanize all the people in the Empire. Alsace and Lorraine, though German provinces at one time, had under French rule become thoroughly French in customs and ideas. The government's

attempt to have the German language take the place of the French there aroused much opposition. The Poles in the eastern part of the Empire were told that their children must be taught German in the schools instead of Polish, and they too were disgusted.

Is it easier to keep a people loyal to a government in time of peace or in time of war? Is there any difference between Bismarck's effort to Germanize Alsace-Lorraine and the Polish districts in eastern Germany and our own feeling that everyone who lives in this country ought to learn the English language? What German industrial establishments, steamship lines, or other commercial organizations do you know by name? What was the phrase "made in Germany" supposed to suggest?



WILLIAM II WHEN HE WAS SOMEBODY
Compare him here with the pictures showing him during and after the World War.

272. Kaiser William II and the Later Empire. — In 1888 Kaiser William I died, ninety-one years old. His son Frederick III was supposed to possess liberal opinions, and Germany under his rule might have become less autocratic. But after only three months he died also. Then came to the throne William II, son of Frederick III, twenty-nine years of age.

William II was an extraordinary man. He admitted it himself, and did not hesitate to tell the world so. "On me as German emperor the spirit of God has descended," he declared. For a long time he dazzled his own people and to some extent others by his conceit and seeming forcefulness. There could be no place in the same government for two such men as he and Bismarck. William meant to rule Germany; so in 1890 Bismarck had to retire.

When the Kaiser and some other prominent Germans talked about the things it was Germany's mission to do in the world,

other countries began to get suspicious. Was all this merely blow and bluster, or ought other people to begin to look out for themselves? The Kaiser lost the good will of Englishmen by sending a telegram of good wishes to Boer (boor) leaders when the Boers were resisting the British in South Africa; and Americans were not pleased when the sympathies of the Germans were so evidently with Spain in the war of 1898. Yet industrially, Germany continued to make progress, and the country plainly had gained the "place in the sun" which Germans had said she deserved.



DROPPING THE PILOT

This cartoon first appeared in the English magazine *Punch*. Perhaps none has been more widely copied because of its striking significance. Would the new pilot steer the German ship of state in safe waters?

Do you think Kaiser William II deliberately tried to impress the world with his own merits, or simply could not help bragging about his abilities? Would such a man be popular as President of the United States?

273. Italy after 1815. — Metternich was about right when he said Italy was only a "geographical expression." The map of Italy when the Congress of Vienna broke up showed the districts of Piedmont and Sardinia constituting one kingdom; Sicily and southern Italy under the king of Naples; the Papal States, or

States of the Church, including Rome and running diagonally across the peninsula to the northeast; several duchies, large and small, north of the Papal States; and Lombardy and Venetia directly under the control of Austria.

Conditions in Italy while Metternich controlled Austria were about as bad as they could be in any country that pretended to be civilized. The government was corrupt and incompetent. Brigands infested almost every part of the peninsula. Roads

were poor, life and property unsafe. Austrian police officers nagged and annoyed people suspected of liberal thinking. Education was almost wholly neglected. Farming was done no better than in the days of Julius Caesar, and the new wave of industrial change which had swept over England and was beginning to be felt in France and Belgium had not touched Italy. What a prospect for a land that once ruled the civilized world!

Why did Napoleon's reforms in Italy seem to have no effect? Were the Italians of the nineteenth century direct descendants of such men as Julius and Augustus Caesar? Why have Italy and Greece been so insignificant in modern history in comparison with their leadership of civilization in ancient times?

274. Some Early Revolutionary Leaders. — In spite of all this Austrian tyranny, some Italians, even when they dared not talk, could think about *il risor'giment'o*, or "the resurrection," of Italy. One of the first secret organizations to look for a change was known as the Carbonari,¹ made up chiefly of workingmen. They were willing to use force, if necessary, to bring about improvements; but they had no clear-cut end in view, and revolutions which they started were easily suppressed.

Three possibilities of bringing about the unification of Italy had their advocates. One idea was that the Pope might make himself the leader of such a movement. But the Pope did not care to undertake it. Even though most of the Italian people were Catholics, so also were most of the Austrians; and as the head of the Church to which both nations belonged, what might happen if he championed Italy's cause against Austria!

Another dream was that of Giuseppe (Joseph) Mazzini (jū sep'pe mätzē'nē) and those who shared his hope that Italy might become a republic. He organized a good many young men in a movement that was referred to as "Young Italy"; but many people were either too much afraid of Austrian vengeance or else did not believe that a republic was just the thing for Italy. Mazzini had more enthusiasm than practical leadership, and his hopes and ideals caused him to spend some of his life in prison. The authorities were suspicious of him, because they could not understand young

¹ Carbonār'ē — the word means "charcoal burners."

men who took solitary walks and refused to say what they were thinking about.

When the revolutionary year of 1848 opened, a rebellion had already been started in Sicily and Naples. Then as the overturn in France came on and Metternich was driven out of Vienna, the spirit of revolt flamed out in almost every part of Italy. Mazzini attempted to set up in Rome a republic under a written constitution; but Mazzini's republic lasted less than a year. French troops were sent by Louis Napoleon to restore the Pope to his position, and they stayed in Rome until 1870.



VICTOR EMMANUEL II

Under this king's leadership, guided by Cavour's diplomacy, Italy became a united nation.

Mazzini had to flee for his life, and, like so many other refugees, found safety in England. Even in exile, he was hopeful. "Our victory is certain," he said. "What matters the triumph of an hour?" But it was not to be Mazzini any more than the Pope who was to unite Italy.

There remained a third possibility. Charles Albert, King of Sardinia and Piedmont, took the field against Austria when the revolutions of 1848 broke out. He was defeated and had to abdicate his throne in favor of his son Victor Emmanuel. But Sardinia was given a constitution, and that constitution later became the basis for a united Italy.

What advantages or disadvantages do you see in a struggle for liberty that has to be carried on secretly? From anything that you have read about Italy or its recent history, would you judge that an Italian republic could have "made a go of it" in 1848?

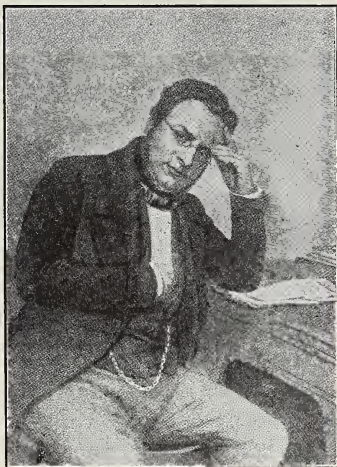
275. Cavour and His King. — King Victor Emmanuel II was a thorough patriot and a fine man personally; but, like many other

kings, he could not play the game of politics and international statecraft as well as some who could not wear a crown. He was exceedingly fortunate in obtaining as his prime minister one of the most skillful statesmen of modern times, Count Camillo di Cavour (că voor'). When there seemed no chance of overthrowing Austrian power in Italy, Cavour had kept rather quiet, carrying on a country estate and traveling. But in 1847 he established the first newspaper in Italy that dared to favor liberal government. After the kingdom of Sardinia received a constitution, he rapidly rose in prominence. In 1852 he became prime minister and immediately set to work to establish a new day in his kingdom.

Farmers were advised as to improved methods of agriculture, and manufacturers were also encouraged. The production of silk and cotton was notably increased. Railroads were planned and started; and even the construction of a tunnel through the Alps was undertaken. Education was promoted; and goodness knows Italy needed it, for 75 per cent of her people could not read or write!

But Sardinia could not, unaided, unite Italy. So Cavour laid his plans to get help from somewhere. When the Crimean War broke out, though Sardinia had no particular reason to be interested in it, he offered to send troops to help France and England fight against Russia. When the time came to make peace, he sat with other leaders of nations in the Congress at Paris and had a fine chance to tell them about the needs of Italy and his ambitions to drive out Austria and unite the country.

Do you suppose the people of the kingdom of Sardinia understood what Cavour was driving at in taking part in the Crimean War? What



CAVOUR

differences and what likenesses do you note in Cavour's situation and policies in Italy as compared with Bismarck's in Germany? Ask yourself this question again at the end of Section 276.

276. How the Kingdom of Italy Was Formed. — Cavour had some reason to expect help from Napoleon III, since the Emperor had professed his interest in peoples that wanted freedom, and probably was sincere. After a time an Italian tried to kill Napoleon III, charging that he really was not a friend to liberty in France or any other place. This act — strangely, do you think? — made a deep impression on Napoleon. Soon afterward he gave Cavour his promise to help in driving the Austrians out of Italy — on two conditions: the war must seem a defensive war on the part of Sardinia, and France was to receive the districts of Nice and Savoy — Napoleon's "pourboire" (poorbwār'), or tip, as they were called.

Going ahead with his plans to provoke Austria, Cavour caused the Sardinian armies to be enlarged and better organized. The Austrian ruler fell into the trap and declared war on Sardinia. Then Napoleon III kept his promise. He came into Italy with French troops and, joining the Sardinians, won two notable battles over the Austrians (Magen'ta, 1859; Solferino (sol ferē'no), 1860).

Then came a sad disappointment to Cavour. Napoleon III, distressed at the suffering and loss of life that even victories caused, began to wonder how long the French people would stay with him in a war in behalf of somebody else. Besides, if Austria was weakened too much, Italy might become correspondingly strong. Would a strong Italy next door to France be to the interest of France? So without any notice to Cavour, Napoleon arranged peace with Austria (1860). Lombardy was transferred from Austria to Sardinia; but Venetia, which the Italians had hoped to gain, was left under Austrian rule. For once Cavour lost his head. He wanted the war to go on, even without Napoleon; but King Victor Emmanuel knew this was silly, and refused to risk what had been gained in a hopeless effort to get more. Savoy and Nice, Napoleon's tip, were turned over; and Cavour and his king waited for the next move.

Help came from a surprising source. We have had no occasion before to mention Garibaldi (gar i bāl'dē), though he had taken part in some of the earlier revolutions in Italy and also had done

some fighting in South America.¹ He lived for a while on Staten Island as a candlemaker and captain of a small ship. In 1860 he got together a thousand men, called "Redshirts," from the outfits they wore, and as reckless as Garibaldi himself.



GARIBALDI AND HIS KING

Garibaldi cared little for show and display. Often he dressed in outfits that suggested the rough life he went through before he became an Italian hero. The king had never before met the man to whom he owed about half his kingdom.

The destination of the "Thousand" was Sicily. In a few weeks Garibaldi and his Redshirts overran the whole island and then crossed to the mainland. Almost as easily the throne of the king of Naples toppled, and Garibaldi had the "Two Sicilies" — the island and the southern part of the mainland — under his control. Now they voted to join Sardinia. Garibaldi unselfishly asked for no honor or office for himself, but turned over his conquests to King Victor Emmanuel.

¹ Romance played a thrilling part in Garibaldi's life. He saw his wife Anita first in a garden as he was looking through a spyglass on a boat off the coast of Brazil. He was tremendously taken with her, and going on shore tried to find her. Then he was invited to dinner and discovered that the girl whom he had seen was the daughter of his host. She was as much attracted to him as he had been to her, and they were soon married. She went with him in all his early campaigns in Italy but finally died from disease resulting from the conditions under which they had to live.

Meanwhile, several districts in north central Italy, including the duchies of Parma, Modena, and Tuscany, and a part of the



HAGSTROM COMPANY, N.Y., Map Makers

THE UNIFICATION OF ITALY

Papal States, overthrew their own governments, and voted to be annexed to Sardinia. In 1861 a national Parliament, made up

of delegates from almost all of the peninsula, met at Turin and voted to call Victor Emmanuel the King of Italy. Within a few weeks Cavour was dead, but he had lived long enough to see the accomplishment of the largest part of what he had set out to do. Only Rome and Venetia were still outside of Italy. Florence was for some years the capital of the country, though everybody expected that in time Rome would hold that honor.

Venetia was added, you remember, as a result of Italy's joining Prussia in the Seven Weeks' War upon Austria (1866). Then when Prussia and France went to war (1870), Napoleon called home the French troops in Rome, and Victor Emmanuel's troops promptly went in and took possession of the city. The people voted at the rate of one hundred to one to join Italy, and Rome became the capital of the kingdom. Naturally, Italy now felt under obligation to go along with Prussia or Germany in international affairs, and that is why Italy became one of the members of the Triple Alliance along with Germany and Austria.

In Italy as in Germany, nationalism, crushed or ignored earlier in the century, came through to victory. There were still a few districts inhabited largely by Italians outside the borders of Italy which Italy wanted. Italians referred to them as *Italia Irredenta* (unredeemed Italy); but they were not brought under the Italian flag until the close of World War I (1919).

Was Napoleon III justified in making peace with Austria when he did? Do you believe France was benefited by taking part in the war for Italian freedom?

277. Italy and the Pope. — Outside of Austria about the only people who regretted the way Italy had been brought together were the Pope and those who thought it was wrong to take from him the territories over which he ruled. Though most of the people of Italy continued to be loyal Roman Catholics, the Pope refused to recognize officially King Victor Emmanuel and his successors. Some said that it was good for the Pope to be freed of the burdens of being a political ruler, and that he could be entirely independent of any government as long as he was simply the head of the Church. Others argued, however, that the Pope needed to have land to rule over in his own right in order to make sure his independence from other monarchs.

After Rome became the capital of Italy, the Italian Parliament passed the Law of Papal Guarantees, by which the Pope was given a yearly payment of about \$650,000 to take the place of revenues he had been getting from his former dominions. He was allowed to have entire freedom to send ambassadors to other governments and receive ambassadors from them. But the Italian government



ST. PETER'S AND THE VATICAN

No religious structure in the world is more famous than this. A picture such as this cannot begin to suggest the enormous size of the cathedral. The Vatican, which contains one of the world's most wonderful museums and libraries and the residence of the Pope, is seen in part at the right of the picture.

would not recognize him as a monarch. Pope Pius IX, who was the one to lose Rome, refused to accept the money voted him by the Italian government and shut himself up in the papal palace, calling himself "the Prisoner of the Vatican." As a "prison" it was a rather attractive place, for the palace and grounds cover about a quarter of a square mile, and nobody molested the Pope at all.

For a number of years this seemed a ticklish situation, but it turned out to be very easily solved. The Popes displayed excellent judgment in not attempting to dictate what Catholic kings and governments should do in purely political affairs; and in 1929, after the dictator Mussolini (moos so lē'nē) had come into power in

Italy, an arrangement was made by which the Pope's palace and surrounding estates were recognized as Vatican City, and officially removed from the authority of the Italian government. A visitor to Rome might enter and leave Vatican City as freely as you might cross the street in your own town, but the Pope had his own coinage and postage stamps and his Swiss guards, and enjoyed feeling that he was completely independent of the Italian government.

Do you think if recent popes had been elected from any other place than Italy they would have been more, or less, disturbed at losing their "temporal power"?

278. Italy's Slow Progress after 1870. — Under the Italian constitution Italians had their own king and the right to elect their own representatives to share in the government. There was to be a parliament of two houses, a Senate appointed by the king, and a Chamber of Deputies elected by the voters for a term of five years. There was also a prime minister; but since Italy, like France, had several parties, a prime minister had a hard job holding different parties together long enough to permit him to stay in office more than a few months.

But here was a problem — not only 75 per cent but in some sections even 90 per cent of the people could not read or write. Could such people be expected to understand political questions or govern themselves? The standard of living of the majority of the people, especially in the southern part of the country, was terribly low. The wars in which Italy had taken part had left a heavy burden of debt, and one-fourth of all the money the government took in was paid as interest on this debt.

Because most of the other leading countries were doing so, Italy thought she must have compulsory military service and a good-sized army and navy. Besides, she reached out for colonial possessions but could not get any that were very profitable. The district known as Eritre'a, on the southern coast of the Red Sea, passed into Italian hands. In a war with Turkey in 1911, Italy obtained Tripoli on the northern coast of Africa and changed its name to Libya. Some islands in the Aegean Sea and off the coast of Asia Minor also came under Italian rule. But all this meant more expense and more debt.

Little by little education was gradually extended, and by 1900

almost half the people had learned to read and write. But that was still nothing to brag about. Many Italians, expecting to find better conditions in the New World, left Italy and made their new homes in the United States or Argentina. Italy did make some advance after it became united and free. Railroads were built, some roads were improved, and commerce with other countries picked up. Some Italian scholars and scientists became known the world over — Marconi, for instance. For some years after the first World War the dictator Mussolini improved conditions in Italy somewhat, but then came another war and disaster.

Do you think that the kind of government Austria imposed on Italy for so long was to blame for the slow progress which Italy made? Would Italy have been better off if it had not tried to acquire African colonies? Did Italy need a large standing army?

279. The Troublesome Problems of the Dual Monarchy. — Germany and Italy were by 1871 well started on the road to union, but what had happened to Austria, which for so many years struggled with Prussia to be master of Germany? Austria was definitely out of Germany after the Seven Weeks' War of 1866, and her chances of regaining influence in Italy had shrunk to nothing. Since she could not now afford to stay alone in the middle of Europe, she had to seek friendlier relations with Hungary.

This need brought about the establishment of the strange combination known as Austria-Hungary, and often referred to as the Dual Monarchy. A dual monarchy, in case you do not know, exists when the same ruler is at the head of two different countries, whose governments are otherwise not closely united.

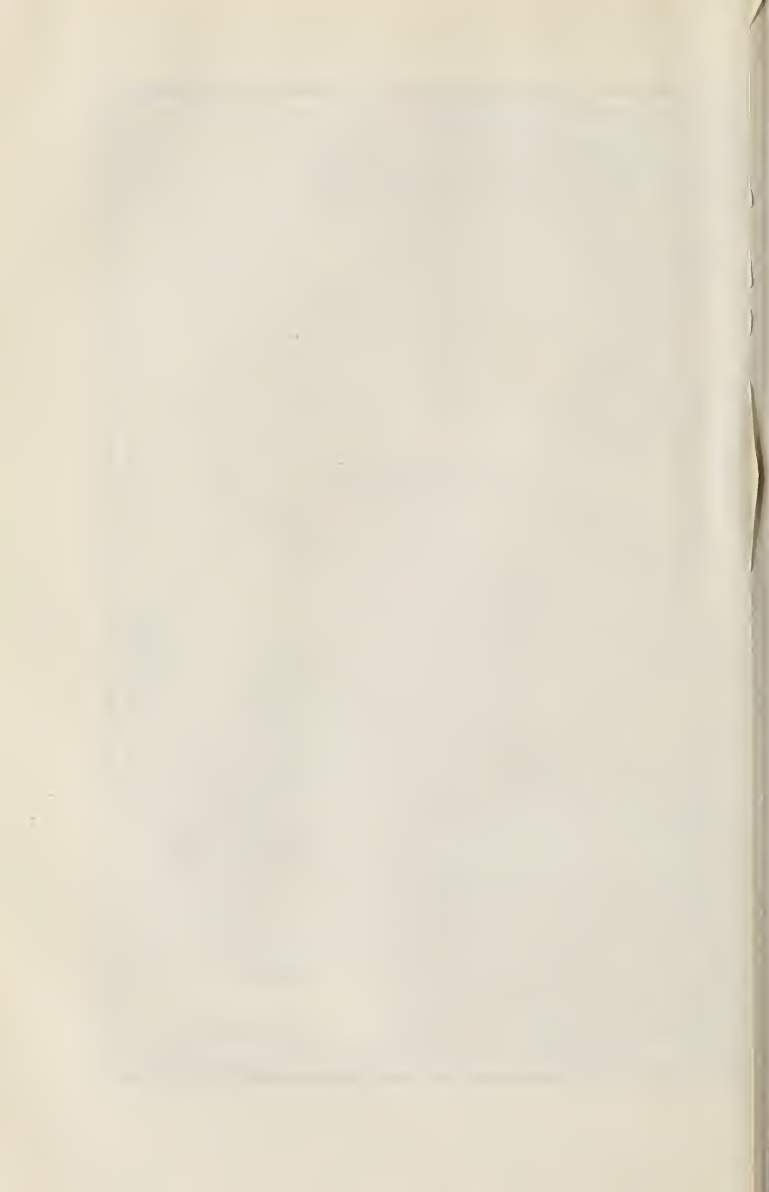
In 1867 an arrangement was made between Austria and Hungary known as the "Ausgleich" (ous'glik). The emperor of Austria was also to have the title of king of Hungary, but was to be crowned separately in each of the two countries. Each country was to have its own law-making body and its own cabinet. Bohemia had wanted to be recognized as a third self-governing portion of the combination, but it, along with other districts, was kept under the control of Austria. This policy of suppressing nationalistic spirit was one of the chief causes of Austria's troubles.

Hungary, too, kept down the aspirations of people of other races. At times eleven different languages could have been heard in the









Hungarian Parliament. The Magyars controlled Hungary but did not allow the people of other races the share in political affairs which they wanted. Slavic races wanted to join Serbia or Roumania. Polish people under the rule of both Austria and Hungary hoped there might be a resurrection of an independent Poland. Italians in the district known as the Trentino (tren tē'no) and around the city of Trieste (trē ěst') wanted to join Italy.

What, then, was there to hold this ill-assorted empire together? The army and navy for the empire was a joint affair. Relations with foreign countries were handled through one central ministry. The same coinage was used in both parts of the empire. But a sort of personal regard for Emperor Francis Joseph may, after all, have done as much as anything to prevent the Dual Monarchy from breaking apart. His reign was one of the longest in European history (1848–1916) and perhaps one of the unhappiest. His only son committed suicide; his wife was assassinated; his brother Maximilian was sent by Napoleon III to Mexico and was killed. Then in 1914 his nephew, Francis Ferdinand, heir to the throne, was murdered. When Francis Joseph finally passed away, Austria was in the midst of one of the great wars in history, a war that was destined to break the Dual Monarchy into fragments.



Culver Service

EMPEROR FRANCIS JOSEPH

A monarch of many sorrows, ruler of a polyglot people for sixty-eight years.

Would it have been better for Europe if Austria and Hungary had not been united in 1867? Was the problem of races in the Dual Monarchy more serious than the problem of Americanizing immigrants in this country?

280. Russia in Europe but Hardly of It. — We have mentioned Russian czars and their policies now and then in telling the story of other countries. But though Russia had a marked influence

upon the history of much of Europe, she was little changed by events on the rest of the continent. Peter the Great's efforts to force his people to look and act like Europeans did not affect to any great extent the life and character of the Russian masses. Ninety per cent of these 100,000,000 people could not read or write. Many of them lived in conditions we should hardly think fit for a horse or cow, and not knowing about better conditions of living, they had no ambition or enterprise to struggle for anything better. Russia was still, outside of a few large cities, almost entirely agricultural. Only the upper classes took on western customs and manners, but that part of the population ruled the rest.

Moreover, Russians were not all alike in race and language. The people of the Ukraine, in the southwestern part, were much like a distinct nationality. North of them were the White Russians, who, though Slavic, spoke a different dialect. The largest body of non-Russian people in European Russia was the Poles, who, especially after an attempted revolution in 1830, were held down by an iron hand. Farther north were the Lithuanians, the Letts, the Estonians, and the Finns, also forced to stay under Russian rule. In several parts of the Empire, especially in the West, were a considerable number of Jews, whose presence gave the excuse for both religious and race quarrels. Time after time the czars tried to force some or all of these people to learn the Russian language and submit to the Russian Orthodox Church, but this policy of "Russification" produced little else than ill will. The more you try to force a person to adopt your own religion, customs, or language when he cannot see anything wrong with his own, the less friendly you are likely to make him.

Why hadn't Peter the Great carried his reforms far enough to affect the lives of the Russian people as a whole? If he had lived in the nineteenth century, do you think there would have been any difference in the development of Russia?

281. Russia's Interests in Asia. — Russian rulers never did get one prize they wanted — Constantinople — but they reached out for plenty of land to the east. With the exception of the British, the Russian Empire before World War I was the largest in the world, and it was not scattered all over the world as were the

British dominions and colonies. But much of the land under the Russian flag was of no earthly use to anybody; it was too cold, too barren, or hemmed in by mountains, deserts, and ice-bound waters.

Russian rule was extended over much of Siberia as far back as the seventeenth century. Russia reached the Pacific Ocean when

*Sotfoto*

ON THE TRANS-SIBERIAN RAILWAY

This winter scene at the town of Novosibirsk shows a junction point between the main line of the railroad, which crosses the river on the bridge in the picture, and another Siberian line.

hardly half of the English colonies in America had been founded (1638). Later she acquired Alaska and considered setting up an empire in the New World. But after the Monroe Doctrine was proclaimed, Alaska seemed of little value to Russia, and in 1867 the province was sold to the United States.

In the nineteenth century Russia reached in another direction. Her troops got control of most of Turkestan' in western Asia and made it evident that they would like to find their way south

through Afghanistan' or Persia to the Indian Ocean. The British did not like the idea at all, because it threatened the security of her possessions in India. That was one reason the British lion and the Russian bear were so often growling at each other when, we can see now, it would have been to their interest to be friends.

Russia also wanted a port on the Pacific. She gained Vladivostok' about 1860 ; but Vladivostok is rather far north, its harbor can be kept open in winter only by ice-breakers, and it is nearly 5000 miles away from the great cities of European Russia. To connect this distant port with European Russia, the government built the longest railroad in the world—the Trans-Siberian Railway, finished in 1902. Looking for a more suitable Pacific port than Vladivostok, Russia forced China to lease Port Arthur to her—but how that step brought on a disconcerting conflict with Japan we will save for a later day (§§ 327, 331). (See map on page 640.)

How much longer is the Trans-Siberian Railway than the roads in this country that we call transcontinental? Would the construction or management of that road be a more difficult proposition than of the Santa Fé, the Great Northern, or the Southern Pacific? Did Russia have as much right to obtain territory on the Pacific coast as other countries?

282. Russian Autocracy and Why It Was Endured.—“The autocrat of all the Russias”—that was the title by which the czars were often described and one that many of them liked. Even the best of them *bestowed* reforms upon the poorer classes instead of trying to help the people discover and satisfy their own needs. Yet there was some excuse for this. What did the people want, anyway? Did the czars have any means of knowing? They had almost no contact with the great bulk of their subjects, many of whom had an almost superstitious reverence for their “Little Father” and were terribly disappointed to find that some of their rulers had not the slightest real interest in them.

With all their supposed autocracy, the czars too often were not masters of their own government. About 400,000 officials of one grade or another constituted a sort of bureaucracy and really directed the machinery of government. The czar was closely surrounded by a few members of aristocratic families and military leaders, some of whom were not loyal to him. Unless it was to

their interest to do so, they did not tell the czar the truth about the conditions and problems of Russia.

A little enlightenment sifted down through from the upper crust, and a few "intellectuals" became bold enough to be dissatisfied with the Russian government. Count Tolstoy wrote of Russian problems in a way to attract the attention of peoples of other countries. But such men could not influence the ruling class. So some fault-finders resorted to throwing bombs and attempting to assassinate those who held high positions. A secret organization, the members of which called themselves *Nihilists* (nī'hīl ists) — which might be interpreted as meaning people who had respect for nothing or who wanted "nothing" in the way of authority over them — made itself a nuisance, without actually accomplishing anything. Murdering people is not a good way to get friends for the cause of liberty. Czars whose own lives were constantly in danger thought they had to crush ruthlessly any discontent or criticism. Thousands and thousands were put to death or exiled to work in the mines of dreary Siberia.

Some members of the royal family were anxious to better things in Russia. But here was a country made up on the one hand of ignorant peasants who would not know what to do with democracy if they had it, and, far removed from them, an aristocracy that did not mean to share its privileges and powers with anyone else. An intelligent middle class had little chance to get a place in Russian life.

Do you see any parallel between the position occupied by the czars in Russian life and that of Louis XVI and Marie Antoinette in France before 1789? Can a ruler be a tyrant and still think he is doing the right thing? Are all people who throw bombs or try to assassinate public officials cowards?

283. Nineteenth-Century Czars and the Events of Their Reigns. — Alexander I (1801–1825) was the well-meaning monarch who refused to stand for Napoleon's Continental System and by doing so brought about the invasion of Russia which wrecked Napoleon. He suggested the Holy Alliance and really meant it at first to be a means of binding monarchs together to govern their people decently. But Metternich, that hater of liberty, made Alexander over.

Then came Nicholas I (1825–1855). He never had any use for liberal ideas of any kind. Under him the Polish revolt of 1830 was crushed and Poland's constitution taken away. During his rule the brutal secret police known as the Third Section was organized, which spied on everything and everybody and made it risky for anyone to think seriously about free government.

Before the end of his reign, Russia found itself involved in the Crimean War, which grew out of a set of problems, often referred to as "the Eastern Question," concerning what should be done with or about Turkey. Emperor Napoleon III claimed he had a treaty allowing him to protect Roman Catholics under Turkish rule. Russia claimed to be the guardian of all the Greek Catholics in Turkish dominions. Great Britain did not want anything to happen that would put Russia in Constantinople. Czar Nicholas I complicated the situation by making a remark to the British ambassador to Russia to the effect that the Sultan was "a sick man — a very sick man." The implication was that he might pass out before long, and then his property would have to be distributed. Great Britain became suspicious. When Russia, claiming the right to protect the Holy Places in Jerusalem, declared war on Turkey, Emperor Napoleon III and the British government intervened — not so much that they wanted to help Turkey as that they wished to check Russia (1854). We have already noted how Cavour took Sardinia into this war.

Most of the fighting in the war was around the Russian port of Sebas'topol in the Crimea. Russia could not hold out against her four opponents, and by 1856 the war was over. Russia had to give up her claim to the right to protect Christians in Turkish territory. The Sultan of Turkey promised to make some reforms and to grant religious freedom in his possessions. Few people believed that his promises really meant anything; and they did not. Almost the only pleasant thing connected with this Crimean War is the story of Florence Nightingale, a British nurse who did much to aid the sick and wounded soldiers. She was the first of the war nurses who have given their services in behalf of the suffering soldiers in wartime at great risk to themselves.

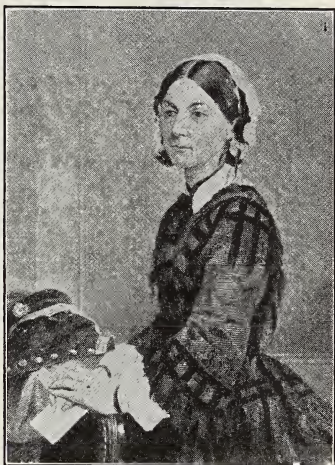
Have you read *The Charge of the Light Brigade* and *The Charge of the Heavy Brigade* by Alfred Tennyson? Both these poems are connected

with episodes of the Crimean War. So is *The Song of the Camp* by Bayard Taylor. Was the intervention of Great Britain, France, and Sardinia in this quarrel between Russia and Turkey justifiable?

Before the Crimean War was over, Russia had a new czar, Alexander II (1855–1881). He was the best man Russia had had in that position for a long time and really wanted to do something to improve the conditions of his people.

A sort of feudalism still prevailed in Russia. Most of the rural land was owned by the czar or by nobles. The peasants who lived on these estates were serfs in practically the old medieval style. Now Alexander II undertook to set these serfs free from their obligations to their landlords. First he “emancipated” those who lived on lands owned by the czar himself (1858). About 23,000,000 people were affected by this order. Three years later (1861) he extended this emancipation to the serfs on the estates of the nobles, who numbered probably as many more. So by these two acts Alexander II set free serfs to a number ten times as great as that of the slaves who gained their freedom through the American Civil War. This emancipation of the serfs, however, did not work out just as Alexander expected. The land of the feudal estates did not become the property of the peasants individually, but was owned in common by the village in which the peasant lived. Few peasants were allowed to use enough land to support them in comfort; so there still was discontent.

Alexander also established a sort of jury system and granted, in a measure, freedom of the press. In many parts of the Empire local



FLORENCE NIGHTINGALE

Her services in the Crimean War are commemorated today by a fine hospital on the Asiatic side of the Bosphorus.

bodies called *zemst'vos* were set up, which were a mild beginning of something like local government.

In 1863 there was another revolution in Poland. Then somebody tried to shoot the czar. Things like this made him think the people did not appreciate him and turned him away somewhat from his liberal policies. Later (1881) Alexander II decided to give Russia a constitution. He had one all drawn up, but the day before it was to be published he was assassinated; and there was no chance for a constitution in Russia for a long time.

From what you know about the effects of setting the Negro slaves free in the United States, do you think that step worked out any better than the emancipation of serfs in Russia? Was Alexander II justified in thinking that the people did not appreciate the reforms he had undertaken?

Then came Alexander III (1881-1894). After Alexander II's experience, you could hardly expect that his successor would be much inclined to try experiments. Anyway, Alexander III was a stern, relentless tyrant, and free government made no headway in Russia under him.

Finally came Nicholas II (1894-1917), "the last of the Romanoffs." Probably he meant well, but he was weak and changeable. He was easily influenced by his wife and other hangers-on of the imperial court. *Pogroms*, or riots against Jews, frequently occurred, and the authorities seldom did much to prevent them. Hundreds of thousands of Jews left Russia as a result of such persecution, many of them coming to the United States.

Nicholas II did get credit for doing one praiseworthy thing. He called a conference which met at The Hague (1899) to consider the reduction of armaments, though some say he did it because the Russian navy was practically useless and he thought the best way out was to see if other countries would not disband their navies or make them useless also.

In 1905 Nicholas II was faced by a serious threat of revolution. Under that pressure he ordered the election of a *duma*, or representative body, to have a voice in law-making. But the czar soon fell back under the influence of advisers who had no use for anything that looked like democracy. Four *dumas* met in all, the last in 1912; but the czar strengthened his own hold on them by

limiting the number of people who might take part in electing their members, and each duma did less than the one before it. So Russia came up to World War I with a government which for all practical purposes was as much of an autocracy as it had ever been.

By the time that World War broke out, however, one notable change had begun in Russia. Since the 1880's a slight but steady



Underwood and Underwood

THE ROYAL FAMILIES OF GREAT BRITAIN AND RUSSIA

King Edward VII (with a grayish beard) is seated near the center of the picture, and next to him is Czar Nicholas II. Toward the right of the picture is the late King George V of England, and at the extreme left is Edward VIII. The ladies include the older members of the two royal families and the czar's four daughters. You get an idea of the way the ladies dressed before World War I.

increase took place in the building of factories in the larger towns. Iron, steel, cotton goods, and ships were made. Coal was mined, and very productive oil wells in the region of the Caspian Sea were drilled. Much of this industrial development came through outside investors — English, French, German, and American. It brought about the rise of a new class of working people in the larger cities and towns, better able to think about changes in government than scattered peasants and in a better position to act together in resisting tyranny.

Should Russia be more severely blamed for pogroms than the United States for lynching of Negroes? Were the czars correct in thinking that if the people were allowed to write and speak freely they would lose their respect for the government?

284. English Politics in the Early Nineteenth Century. — Now let us take a long jump from Russia, where liberty did not feel at home at all, to Great Britain, where it made surer progress than in any other great European nation. As we look back upon it now, the growth of democracy in Great Britain may seem to have been slow, but it was nevertheless sure. Political freedom is much more real there today than in many a country that calls itself a republic.

The long reign of George III (1760–1820) covers two great revolutions that started outside of England, the American and the French. Then came two comparatively short reigns — those of the brothers George IV (1820–1830) and William IV (1830–1837). George IV was “no good” at all, though he dressed well and was sometimes called the “first gentleman of Europe.” William IV’s reign was marked by a great step toward political reform, though he was not responsible for it. (For the family connections of British monarchs look at the table on page 384.)

In 1815 Great Britain was the only great European country where the people had any direct voice in the government. Yet in those days “vox populi” in that country was rather weak and ineffective. The political leaders of the Tory party were determined that there should be no such thing as a revolution that would overthrow the British government, and they put several repressive laws through Parliament.

What was called representation at that time would have been a joke if it were not serious. You remember that many towns and boroughs, which centuries before had been given the right to send members to the House of Commons, either failed to grow or even disappeared entirely, while new towns and cities, populous and deserving, had no direct representation at all. Some of these little places, nicknamed “pocket boroughs” or “rotten boroughs,” were owned by some landlord, and he picked out the person or persons to be chosen to sit in the House of Commons. In one place some of the citizens are quoted as saying, “We would choose the

master's Great Dane if he asked us to do so." Besides, rather high requirements upon voters in regard to property-owning prevailed, just as in the United States.

The Tory party, for fear of starting something that might get out of control, did not want to make any material change in things as they were. Their opponents, the Whigs, were more liberal. Great changes in English industry were now thoroughly under way, and had produced a class of business and working men who would not tolerate being unrepresented indefinitely. The struggle of the Whigs against the Tories was, therefore, not simply a quarrel between political parties, but a great movement to gain for one class of people the rights that every worthy citizen ought to enjoy.

Some steps toward reform were made, often grudgingly, in the first quarter of the nineteenth century. The slave trade was abolished in 1808. The right of workingmen to organize in unions was finally recognized by Parliament in 1825. Then in 1828 the right to vote and hold office was given to Protestants who did not belong to the Church of England, and the following year the same privilege was extended to Catholics.

Did the French Revolution hinder or help the progress of popular government in England? Were the Tory political leaders wholly heartless and selfish? What possible justification could anyone have for being unwilling to get rid of the pocket boroughs and rotten boroughs?

285. The Great Reform Bill of 1832. — Even the English Tories could not withstand the tide of discontent which swept over England around 1830. No one could be more patriotic than their leader, the Duke of Wellington; yet even he declared with reference to representation as it existed: "No better system could be devised by the wit of man." But even the "Iron Duke" could not prevent reform.

Immediately after William IV became king (1830) there was a new election for members of Parliament, and the Whigs came into power in the House of Commons. They proposed a bill which would take away from most of the rotten boroughs their right of representation and transfer their members to the larger towns which were not properly represented. The bill also gave the right to vote to certain classes of people on the basis of the value of the houses they owned or rented. Though today the requirements

would not seem high, not many factory workers or farm laborers owned houses or paid the necessary amount of rent. The bill was evidently popular, but its chances of passing were slim.

"The bill, the whole bill, and nothing but the bill" became the slogan of its friends. The king was induced to dissolve Parliament and have a new election. This time the Whigs got a much greater majority than before and passed the bill, but the Lords defeated it. The Whig leader, Earl Grey, then proposed that the king should authorize the creating of enough new titles, which of course would be given to friends of the Reform Bill, to change the hostile majority in the House of Lords to a friendly one. The king at last yielded, but this power was not used; for the Lords, rather than be swamped by a wholesale granting of new titles, stayed away in large numbers when the critical vote took place, and the bill was passed by the votes of the Lords who were in favor of it.

This Reform Bill of 1832 was a notable step on the road to democracy. It did not make Great Britain a democracy, for there were still many thousands of people below what we often call the middle class who could not meet the requirements for voting. It represented the same spirit as the "bourgeois revolution" of 1830 in France, except that it was peaceful. The outcome of the struggle showed that the country could obtain anything it really wanted, even against hostile Lords and a lukewarm king. England also showed that it could bring about a great change "by ballots instead of bullets."

If the king has the right to create new Lords whenever he wishes, why is it not done oftener? Are there any countries in which it would not be safe for a ruler to have such power? Who was President of the United States when the first great Reform Bill was passed? Did his election mark any corresponding change in American politics?

286. Reforms in Many Lines. — Soon after the passage of the first Reform Bill, the words *Whig* and *Tory* largely dropped out of English politics. Instead there were the *Liberals* and the *Conservatives*. The Liberals favored changes to make the government more democratic and to improve the comfort and welfare of the masses. The Conservatives were not opposed to all such changes, but they were fairly well satisfied with things as they were and thought that some proposed changes would make matters worse.

William IV was followed on the throne by his eighteen-year-old niece, Victoria. Her reign (1837–1901), the longest in English history, was on the whole one of progress and prosperity in England. We sometimes speak of that period as the Victorian Age, just as an earlier day is sometimes called the Elizabethan Age. The two women were not at all alike, however.



QUEEN VICTORIA

At the left she appears as the attractive young lady who ascended the throne in 1837.
At the right you see her as she looked in later life.

Reform after reform in industrial and social conditions was put through after England was once fairly started on the process, sometimes by one party, sometimes by the other. Improving the form of local government in the cities was one of the first of these changes. Better police departments, better streets, and sanitary sewer systems were brought into being. Slavery was abolished throughout the British Empire (1833). Laws were passed restricting the labor of women and children in factories and mines (§ 304).

Another serious question came up in connection with what England called the corn laws. The English use the word *corn* about the same as people in the United States use *grain*. Taxes

were put on imported wheat so as to make it cost enough to permit owners of farm land in England to raise wheat profitably. Such taxes made grain, and flour made out of grain, cost considerably more than they otherwise would, and thus increased the cost of living of factory workers and town people generally. Some people asked if it would not be better to do away with this tariff and let the grain come in free from countries that produce it easily, so that the town and city workers might get their flour more cheaply. A terrible potato famine in Ireland in 1846 and 1847 made the case stronger than ever, for nothing could take the place of potatoes except imported grain sold at impossible prices.

The abolition of the corn laws finally came about in 1846, under the leadership of Robert Peel. A few years later almost all protective tariff laws followed suit. By 1852 Great Britain was definitely a "free trade" country. It continued to collect revenues on some imports, but put duties on things which had to be imported anyway and made them low enough not to be a burden. Robert Peel was also responsible for the establishment of good police systems both in Ireland and in London. The name "Bobbies," by which the London police are still sometimes called, came from the fact that he (Robert) was responsible for their establishment.

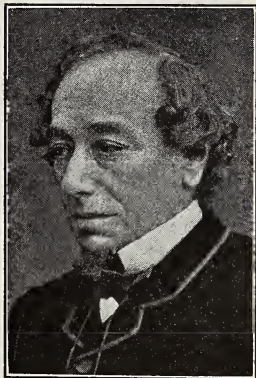
In the 1840's England became considerably excited over the Chartists. They demanded a "people's charter" providing six reforms and threatened a general strike unless it was adopted (1848). They asked for: (1) general manhood suffrage; (2) the division of the country into equal electoral districts for choosing members of the House of Commons; (3) the abolition of property requirements for membership in Parliament; (4) the payment of salaries to members of Parliament; (5) secret voting by ballot; (6) annual elections to the House of Commons. It seems queer now that anybody could have considered such demands dangerous or revolutionary, for England now has all these things except the last one, and that it does not care about. When the Chartists planned to have a great parade to present a monster petition to Parliament, the authorities called out the aged Duke of Wellington to defend the government. But it appeared that many names signed to their petition were fictitious or forged. Besides, on the

day of their great procession, it rained, and the procession melted away. After that we hear little of the Chartists.

Can you imagine what there was about the demands of the Chartists that would scare the government? What gain did the Chartists expect would come to the mass of the people from each of their six points? Do you see any reasons why Great Britain abandoned the protective tariff and as the nineteenth century went on the United States became more and more attached to it?

287. Great Political Rivals. — The political history of Great Britain from the first Reform Bill almost to the end of the century could easily be told in the life stories of four men. One of these, Robert Peel, we have already heard a little about. Another was Lord Palmerston, who for fifty years held an office in the Cabinet under ministries of different parties. Much of the time he was Foreign Secretary and had much influence on British foreign policy. But the two whom we remember most — who took turns most of the time for thirty years at being prime minister — were Benjamin Disraeli (diz rā'li) and William E. Gladstone.

When Benjamin Disraeli (1804–1881) first came into politics, he was considered somewhat of a radical; but before long he swung over to the Conservative side, and was the outstanding Conservative leader for a long time. He came from a Jewish family, but belonged to the Church of England. He attracted a good deal of attention at first by his flowery language, loud vests, rings, and other peculiarities of dress and manner. When he first tried to speak, his hearers “razzed” him, and he was not able to finish. “I sit down now,” he concluded, very truly, “but the time will come when you will hear me.” He had a brilliant mind and was skillful in judging public sentiment. As a debater, he could hold his own with anybody,

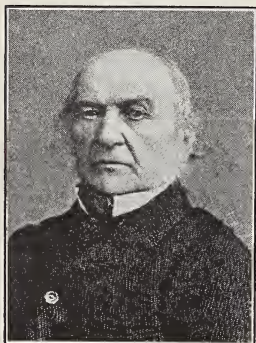


DISRAELI

Not handsome and not too particular about the means by which he achieved his ends, but possessed of a keen and active mind.

because of his sarcastic wit and his ability to put things in a clever way. He wrote a few novels that showed considerable literary talent.

Disraeli believed especially in a strong policy in foreign affairs. He was particularly anxious to check what he considered the ambitious designs of Russia. He bought shares in the company



GLADSTONE

The "grand old man" who refused to accept a title and who four times headed Great Britain's Cabinet.

that constructed the Suez Canal so that Great Britain might control that important waterway. Then to give prestige to the name of Great Britain in India, he had Queen Victoria made Empress of India. Twice he was prime minister. In the latter part of his life he accepted the title of Lord Beaconsfield.

By contrast, William E. Gladstone (1809-1898) came into politics as a Tory, but turned over to the Liberal side and became Disraeli's chief rival in politics. He served sixty years in the House of Commons — all the time from 1834 to 1895 except for one little period of two years. He would never take a title, and came to be known in his later life not only as "the grand old man" but also "the great Comimoner."

He, too, was a skillful public speaker, deeply sincere, yet not afraid to change his mind when new conditions arose. He could make a House of Commons listen intently to a discussion of the figures in a budget — and what can look drier than column after column of figures! He was a truly religious man, and never stooped to gain political fame by anything that went contrary to his conscience. In foreign affairs his ideas often were so completely opposite to those of Disraeli that Disraeli accused him of "compromising the honor of England." He was so anxious to do the fair thing by other people that he did not always insist on England's full rights in a dispute. He was prime minister four times.

Are public men justified in changing their attitude on political questions? Was any United States politician ever in Congress sixty years? Why would such an achievement be harder in this country than in England?

288. The Second and Third Reform Bills and Other Reform Measures. — At first many Englishmen were well satisfied with the Reform Bill of 1832. Before long, however, English workingmen began to demand the right to vote which had been extended to business men and other middle-class people. After the flurry over the Chartist movement was ended, the demand for an extension of the suffrage became stronger and stronger. Gladstone in his first ministry proposed a bill enlarging considerably the number of voters.

Though Gladstone's party was defeated in an election following the introduction of this bill, Disraeli, who then became prime minister, realized that the people really wanted to extend the franchise to most of the factory workers. He concluded, as he put it, to "dish the Whigs" by putting through a reform bill himself. When this Second Reform Bill was finally passed (1867), it gave almost all the factory workers the right to vote. Anyone in the towns who owned a house or paid ten pounds a year in rent was made a voter.

Disraeli's reform bill did not do him much good politically at first. At the first election held after the bill was passed, the Liberals once more were successful, and Gladstone entered upon his second and, in some respects, his most successful prime ministership. He tackled several questions which had been very embarrassing to political leaders.

One of his first measures was the "disestablishment of the Irish Church" (1869). Don't misunderstand this phrase. The church that was "disestablished," or separated from its connection with the government, was not the Roman Catholic Church, to which so many of the Irish belonged, but the Episcopal Church, the established Church of England, which had also by law been "established" in Ireland. No longer did Irish Catholics have to pay taxes to support a church to which comparatively few in Ireland belonged.

Still another measure of much importance to Ireland was the passage of the first Irish Land Act (1870). Much Irish land was

held by "absentee landlords," who hardly ever came from England to visit their Irish property. The government now began to pay the landlords for their titles, and let the peasant farmers who actually occupied the land have a considerable period to pay the government for it so that they now might become its owners.

Gladstone also put through — important to British children — an education act (1870) which threw open elementary education to all children by establishing what Americans would call public schools and what in England are known as *board schools*, because controlled by boards of education and supported at public expense. Laws were also passed (1872) which provided for secret voting at elections and which required many officers to get their positions only after taking civil service examinations.

Why do you suppose Great Britain waited until 1870 before establishing what we should call public schools? (Remember that in England the term "public schools" is used for what we should call private schools, which are public only in the sense that they are open to anyone who can pay their price.) Would you expect any real opposition to such measures as the "disestablishment of the Irish Church"?

In 1874 Disraeli again came into power. For a long time English statesmen had been "seeing things" when they thought of Russia, because Russia still wanted Constantinople and seemed to be threatening to get out to the Indian Ocean southward. After a war between Russia and Turkey in 1877 and 1878, when the Russians were going to force Turkey to lose a good deal of territory, Disraeli joined with Bismarck in forcing a change in the settlement. A Congress was held at Berlin (1878) which made Russia accept less than she wanted in compensation for her victory. When Disraeli came back to London, he told the crowds that met him, "I bring you peace with honor." Time proved that he had not brought lasting peace at least, and perhaps not much "honor." Yet the majority of Englishmen thought the warning of the poet Kipling correct, "Make thee no truce with Adam-zad, the bear that walks like a man."

In 1881, after Disraeli's death, the wheel of fortune put Gladstone at the head of affairs once more. During this third ministry, the Third Reform Bill went through (1884), giving laborers in the rural districts practically the same rights to vote that had been

given by the Second Reform Bill to workers in the towns. The next year (1885) a new law divided the country into districts of nearly equal population for electing members of the House of Commons. The remains of the old pocket boroughs and rotten boroughs of the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries were practically wiped out.

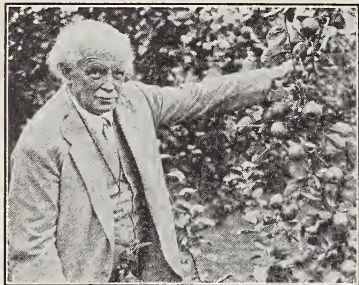
What party would you suppose most likely to profit by the Reform Bills of 1867 and 1884?

289. Leaders and Policies, 1895 to 1914. — After Gladstone succeeded in getting the Third Reform Bill through, he took up the cause of home rule, or self-government, in Ireland. But many who had been with him in his earlier policies refused to follow him here. In his fourth and final ministry (1892–1894) he got the House of Commons to pass a home-rule bill for Ireland, but could not get it through the Lords. Then for several years the Conservatives remained in power, most of the time under the prime ministership of Lord Salisbury (saalsbury). Though his ministry passed a valuable new Irish Land Act (1903), it would not favor a good many measures which the working people wanted. In 1906 the Liberals again gained control of the House of Commons and kept it until after World War I broke out.

Herbert H. Asquith was premier for several years (1908–1916), but the most active leader among the Liberals was a lively and interesting Welshman named David Lloyd George. He was a skillful speaker, a keen politician, and anxious to improve the condition of the masses of the people. Holding the office of Chancellor of the Exchequer, he had to plan the money program of the government. In 1909 he presented to Parliament a budget bill that aroused considerable excitement. He proposed to make the holders of great landed estates pay greatly increased taxes, and also insisted on taking a part of the “increment” — the increased value of land when sold after a period of years which the owners had done nothing to earn except as they held on to the land themselves. The House of Commons passed Lloyd George’s budget bill, but the Lords defeated it. After a new election, the bill got through both houses.

There had been a good deal of talk to the effect that the House of Lords must be “mended or ended.” The British people, as one

who knows them might expect, decided to "mend" it. So the Liberals proposed a "Parliament Act," which provided that the Lords shall have no right to defeat any bill which the Speaker of the House of Commons declares to be a "money bill." Besides, any bill which passes the House of Commons three times within



DAVID LLOYD GEORGE *Wide World*

Like most English statesmen, he had other interests than politics. Here he is showing apples grown on trees which he planted himself.

two years, if in that period there has been at least one election to the House of Commons, must be sent directly from the Commons to the King for his signature. This bill was passed only by repeating the experiences of 1832. Prime Minister Asquith secured from the king a promise to create enough new titles, if necessary, so as to swamp the Lords if they insisted on defeating the bill. They did as on other similar occasions — stayed away

when the time came to vote, so that friendly Lords put the bill through (1911). So today all the Lords can do, as far as law-making is concerned, is to approve bills which they like and to delay the passage of bills which they do not like.

Under the leadership of Lloyd George and other Liberals, Great Britain entered upon a vast program of "social insurance." "We are waging implacable war against poverty," declared Lloyd George. Some are not so sure that all these measures were wise, but their purpose was good. Old-age pensions were provided which were intended to keep from want those who were seventy years old or more and had only a small income. A system of unemployment insurance, generally called the *dole*, was established, which was intended to provide help for a short period for those who wanted to get jobs but could not find them. A compulsory sickness insurance act was also passed, which required people with small incomes to pay a few pence a week into a fund from which payments would be made when necessary for the serv-

ices of physicians and hospitals. The government also helps to support this fund.

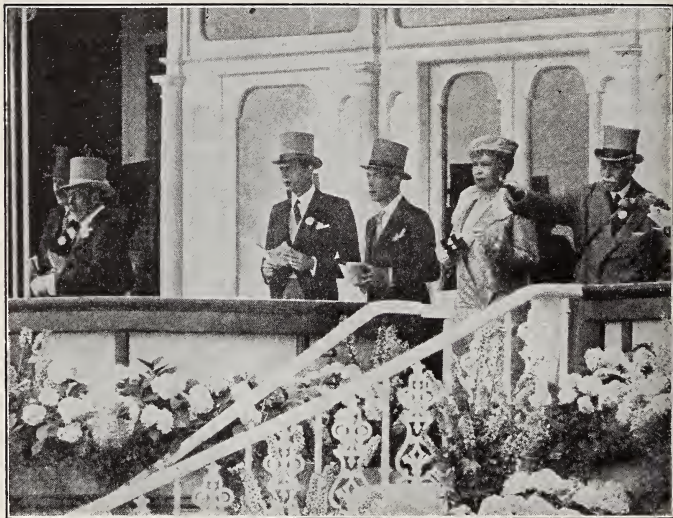
Queen Victoria's long reign came to an end in 1901. Then followed her son Edward VII (1901-1910), his son George V (1910-1936), and George V's sons Edward VIII (1936) and George VI (1936-), as wearers of the British crown.

Do you see any difference between Bismarck's motives in putting through his plans for social insurance in Germany and the purposes of the British leaders in the early twentieth century? Would it be as easy to reduce the power of the Senate in the United States government as it was to cut down the power of the House of Lords in law-making? (You will need to take into account several considerations in answering this question.)

290. The British Government Today. — On one notable occasion Parliament passed a resolution declaring that the government of England should be by "king, lords, and commons." This phrase is still true, but it does not mean at all what it once did.

The English people still have their monarch — a king or queen, as the case may be. No law goes into effect without his signature, even though it has been over two hundred years since any monarch vetoed a bill passed by Parliament, and probably no future monarch ever will refuse to sign a bill that comes to him in the regular way. Proclamations are issued in the king's name, and all official orders are by his command. Even though the prime minister writes the king's speech for him when a new session of Parliament opens, no Parliament would think of beginning without having the king tell them about "my kingdom," "my ministers," and the like, though he knows as well as anybody else that they are "his" only as long as he keeps in touch with the will of the people. "The king reigns, but does not rule." Questions have been raised as to whether the British people would continue to want a king indefinitely, for it has been said that "the Briton is a republican at heart." Recent British kings, however, have shown themselves to be interested in the welfare of their people and men who had not the slightest thought of doing anything contrary to their people's wishes. When Edward VIII gave up the throne in order to marry a woman whom his Cabinet did not approve as a possible queen, much interest was aroused all over the world; but the position of the king in the government seems not to have been affected.

The House of Lords includes not only the "lords temporal," such as those Englishmen who have inherited titles and some Lords who are elected from Scotland and North Ireland, but also the archbishops and bishops of the established church. The king frequently hands out new titles, a few at a time, to persons who



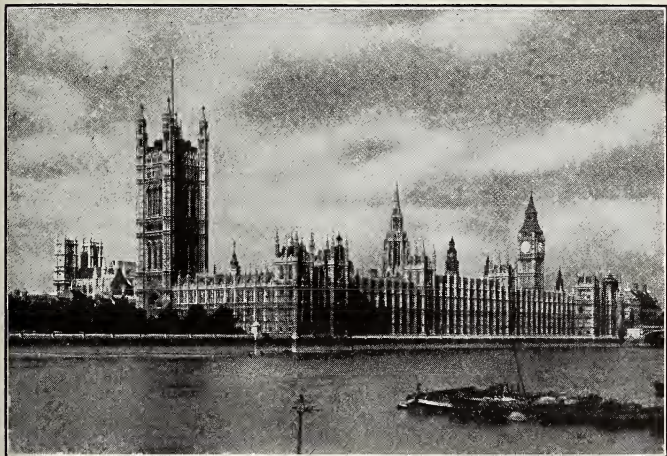
THE ROYAL FAMILY IN 1934

The king, the queen, and two of their sons are pictured as they looked while attending a horse-race meeting. King George V is well toward the left of the picture, the Duke of Kent next, and the Prince of Wales (now Duke of Windsor) next.

have been recommended by the ministry that happens to be in office. This is sometimes done as a reward for some notable service and sometimes when a political leader decides to retire from active politics. Out of the more than 700 people who have a right to attend the House of Lords, it takes only three to make a quorum, and eighty would be a fair attendance under ordinary circumstances.

The House of Commons now has over 600 members. Each one represents a single district in England, Wales, Scotland, or North Ireland. In Great Britain, unlike the United States, any district

may elect anybody from anywhere to represent it. If a party leader is defeated in one district, a vacancy which he may be elected to fill in another district may be made for him by asking some less prominent person to resign. Thus the strong men of all parties may be kept in public life all the time. For a long, long time no salary was paid to members of Parliament, with the result



THE PARLIAMENT BUILDINGS IN LONDON

Probably no government buildings would be more quickly recognized all over the world than these. Big Ben in his tower toward the right of the picture has been heard all over the world. How? German bombs did much damage here in 1941.

that a poor man could not hope to serve unless he had some friend to pay the bills; now a salary large enough to live on (£400 a year) is paid to members of the House of Commons. Elections to the House of Commons must occur at least every five years; but they may occur at any time.

Great Britain is the outstanding example of *cabinet* government in the world. In the government of the United States separate legislative, executive, and judicial departments are supposed to serve as a check upon each other. The British government, however, rests on the idea that the executive branch of the government and the law-making branch should work together and that execu-

tive officers should stay in power only as long as their policies have the support of the law-making branch.

After a new election, the king asks the most prominent member of the victorious party to form a cabinet. This "prime minister" invites other members of Parliament to join the Cabinet, and himself takes any position in it that he wishes. Since Cabinet members are also members of Parliament, they introduce and work for the passage of all important bills. If the House of Commons will not support the members of the Cabinet on any important measure, the Cabinet is expected to resign. Sometimes a prime minister asks to be allowed to "go to the country" — that is, that the House of Commons be dissolved and a new election ordered. Then if his followers control the new House of Commons, he will continue. Under the United States system, as you should know, most officers are chosen for fixed terms, and a president may belong to a different party from that which controls Congress. The British system, which allows an election to be held at any time, and links the executive and law-making branches together, may therefore sometimes enable the people's will to be followed more closely than in the United States.

Writers on government often mention "the British constitution," and from their point of view such a thing is very real. It does not consist, however, of one document alone, as in most countries. It includes: (1) the principles laid down in the great "liberty documents," such as Magna Charta, the Petition of Right, and the Bill of Rights; (2) long-standing customs and practices which are followed regularly; (3) important laws affecting the form and character of the government, such as the great Reform Bills and the Parliament Act of 1911; (4) decisions of the courts on matters of fundamental principles; (5) treaties by which the British government has bound itself.

British courts have on the whole a much better reputation than those of the United States for speed, honesty, and ability to settle quickly a matter in dispute. Yet they lack one power that our highest courts possess. No British court would undertake to set aside a law of Parliament. When Parliament passes a law, it is law — the expression of the people's will — and no judge would undertake to set up a contrary opinion. Our courts, on the other

hand, do claim the right to throw out a law or part of a law if they believe it is contrary to the written document which we call the Constitution.

What advantages or disadvantages do you see in either the British government or that of the United States as compared with the other? Why would not a federal government such as we have in the United States be suitable for Great Britain? If we were used to it, do you think we would be satisfied with the British cabinet system?

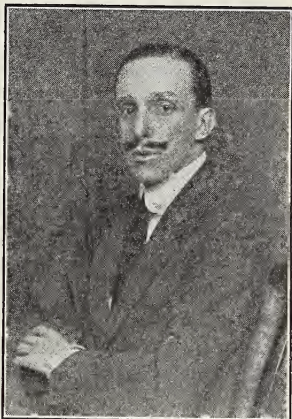
291. Developments in Some of the Smaller Countries of Europe.

— Many of the same kinds of movements were going on in small countries as in the big ones. We have already mentioned how Belgium and Greece gained their independence, for example. The separation of Belgium from the Netherlands was probably a good thing for both countries. In the nineteenth century the Dutch on the whole were prosperous. They kept out of the first World War, but the second brought disaster at the hands of Hitler.

Until 1940 the Scandinavian countries had a peaceful story to tell, except for Denmark's loss of most of Schleswig-Holstein to Germany. Norway and Sweden got along for nearly a century without trouble, but the Norwegians were not satisfied to have been put under a Swedish king by foreign politicians at the Congress of Vienna. King Oscar II of Sweden

— a fine ruler, by the way — peacefully agreed (1905) that the Norwegians might elect a king of their own, and they chose a member of the royal family of Denmark.

Spain and Portugal made the least headway of any of the countries of western Europe, partly because many of the people



Ewing Galloway

ALFONSO XIII, KING OF SPAIN

That used to be his title, and perhaps he had hopes to make it mean something again. Not a bad king as monarchs go, but he happened to be in office when the king business was unpopular. He died in 1941.

in both countries were almost totally uneducated. From 1873 to 1875 Spain for a little while tried a republican form of government under the lead of a bright newspaper man named Emilio Castelar (cas tā'lar). Spain changed back to a monarchy in 1875 under Alfonso XII. His son, Alfonso XIII, the last and one of the best of the kings of Spain, was forced out of office in 1931, when a second attempt at a republic was undertaken. It lasted only a few years. Portugal got tired of a spendthrift monarch of shady morals, and in 1910 set up a republic, which today is more like a dictatorship.

Is little space commonly given to the recent history of the countries mentioned in this section because, being small, they could not do much of importance, or did they continue to be small or mediocre because they did nothing of outstanding significance? Did it make any real difference to the Norwegians when they had a king of their own? Why could Spain be such a mighty power in Europe about 1600 and have sunk to the place which it occupied among the nations by 1900?

292. Developments in the United States during the Nineteenth Century. — Too often we study the history of the United States as if it were a thing by itself and neither deserved nor had any part in the story of world progress as a whole. But exactly the same kinds of influences were working in this country as in others. Great Britain, for instance, has been mentioned as the outstanding example in Europe of the peaceful growth of democracy. The United States might almost as well be used as an example of the extension of the right to vote from the few to the many. When this country put its present Constitution into operation, not more than one in seven of the white men of the country could vote. Property-owning or tax-paying requirements and even religious requirements reduced the number of possible voters to a low point.

During the first half of the nineteenth century, however, great changes took place. In state after state property-owning or tax-paying requirements for voting were abolished or reduced so low as to keep very few from voting. In only two or three states were religious requirements kept very long into the nineteenth century. As a result of the Civil War, the list of voters was greatly increased by adding to it the Negro men who became free and gained full rights as citizens.

Toward the end of the nineteenth century changes in methods of voting were brought about in this country as in Great Britain. Voting was made a secret proceeding instead of being done in the open, and a system of balloting introduced from the British colony of Australia came to be accepted by most of the states.

There was the same rivalry in the United States over the spirit of nationalism as we saw in Europe. Eleven southern states attempted to leave the Union, and set themselves up as the Confederate States of America. A Civil War greater than anything of the kind that had yet occurred anywhere went on for four years before the southern states were defeated and the cause of nationalism triumphed. Some American statesmen, such as Washington, Lincoln, Jefferson Davis, Theodore Roosevelt, and Secretaries of State, like John Quincy Adams, Webster, Seward, and John Hay, were at least as well known to the people of western Europe as European leaders were to the people of the United States.

Would it be a good idea if the first history studied by American children took the form of stories about great characters from other lands? Does your school program link up the history and geography of the United States with the history and geography of the rest of the world?

IDEAS TO STAY WITH US

Nationality and democracy were the keynotes of change in nineteenth-century politics.

For thirty-three years after 1815 Count Metternich ruled Austria and indirectly controlled much of the rest of Europe. He used the armies of absolute monarchs to suppress rebellions. It was even proposed to interfere in the New World, but George Canning and the Monroe Doctrine put a stop to that.

Much of the story of Europe in the nineteenth century centers around the history of France. The two chief revolutionary movements in that century — in 1830 and 1848 — practically started with a revolt in Paris. After trying three kings, a republic, and an empire, France settled down under its "Third Republic" for nearly seventy years, until German conquerors upset it in 1940, and set up a puppet government at Vichy.

The building of a united Germany was brought about by the genius of Bismarck and the force of "blood and iron." By creating a powerful army and by carrying through a series of wars with Denmark,

Austria, and France, he brought about the union of Germany under Prussian leadership with William I crowned emperor at Versailles in 1871. Under him, and for a time under Kaiser William II, Germany seemed to prosper and to gain in prestige among the countries of Europe.

Italy became united under the king of Sardinia and his skillful minister, Count Cavour. Austrian influence was overthrown in much of Italy, and the kingdom of Italy proclaimed in 1861. Emperor Napoleon III and the adventurer Garibaldi helped to secure this result. The district of Venetia was brought in when Austria was defeated in 1866. Italy united with Germany and Austria in the Triple Alliance. But the progress of the country was slow economically and educationally.

In Austria the revolution of 1848 overthrew Metternich but did not bring about any great change in Austrian government. After the short war of 1866 Austria quit trying to control affairs in Germany, and through the *Ausgleich* of 1867 tied itself up with Hungary in a queerly assorted dual empire, which lasted until 1918.

Russia was least influenced by the movement for democracy of any country on the map of Europe. Czar Alexander II set free nearly 50,000,000 serfs on the imperial lands and on the lands of the nobles and even thought of giving Russia a constitution, but he was assassinated before he could do this. Other nineteenth-century czars were tyrants or weak.

Great Britain gave a fine example of a nation making headway toward democracy by peaceful means. Step by step, three great Reform Bills, in 1832, 1867, and 1884, extended the right to vote, so that only a small proportion of the men of the country were left without the vote after 1884. The two great rivals in English politics in the nineteenth century were Disraeli and Gladstone. In the twentieth century much social legislation was undertaken, and the Parliament Act of 1911 greatly reduced the power of the House of Lords. Great Britain today stands as the shining example of successful cabinet government under which "the king reigns but does not rule," and the prime minister and his associates, as long as they control the House of Commons, become the real leaders of the government.

Changes and developments such as were noted in the great countries of Europe may also be observed elsewhere. The spirit of nationality worked out in independence for Belgium and Greece. The Scandinavian countries made steady progress as long as they

could remain at peace. Spain and Portugal made less advance than most of the other countries of western Europe.

In the United States the same influences were at work as in Europe. The right to vote was steadily enlarged through the nineteenth century until almost all men could have it, and the spirit of nationality triumphed in a Civil War with the forces that would have broken the Union into two parts.

NAMES AND TERMS WE SHOULD UNDERSTAND

- | | | |
|-------------------------|---------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1. Nationalism | 18. Senate; Chamber of Deputies | 34. "The Prisoner of the Vatican" |
| 2. Democracy | 19. German Confederation | 35. Nihilism |
| 3. Metternich | 20. Zollverein | 36. Nicholas II |
| 4. Holy Alliance | 21. William I | 37. Rotten boroughs |
| 5. George Canning | 22. Bismarck | 38. George III |
| 6. Charles X | 23. "Blood and iron" | 39. Victoria |
| 7. Louis Philippe | 24. Schleswig-Holstein | 40. George V |
| 8. "Citizen King" | 25. Seven Weeks' War | 41. Conservative |
| 9. Napoleonic Legend | 26. Kaiser | 42. Liberal |
| 10. Louis Napoleon | 27. William II | 43. Peel |
| 11. Kossuth | 28. Mazzini | 44. Disraeli |
| 12. Frankfort Assembly | 29. Charles Albert | 45. Gladstone |
| 13. Coup d'état | 30. Cavour | 46. Lloyd George |
| 14. Crimean War | 31. Garibaldi; "Red Shirts" | 47. Reform bills: 1832, 1867, 1884 |
| 15. Ems Dispatch | 32. Victor Emmanuel | 48. Parliament Act (1911) |
| 16. Franco-Prussian War | 33. Alexander II | 49. Edward VIII |
| 17. Thiers | | 50. George VI |

DATES WORTH REMEMBERING

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1814, 1815 Congress of Vienna | 1861 Kingdom of Italy formed |
| 1820, 1830, 1848 Revolutionary years | 1861-1865 Civil War in the United States |
| 1823 Monroe Doctrine | |
| 1832, 1867, 1884, 1911 English political reforms | 1870-1871 Franco-Prussian War |
| | 1875 Third French Republic |

INTERESTING SUBJECTS YOU MAY LIKE TO KNOW ABOUT

Metternich, His Personality and His Policies
 How Greece Gained Independence
 The Events of the Year 1848 in France, or Austria, or Germany
 The Story of Louis Kossuth
 The Career of Louis Napoleon
 The Story of Florence Nightingale

Mazzini and Young Italy
 The Story of Garibaldi
 The Story of Disraeli
 The Story of Gladstone
 Bismarck's Early Life and Personality
 The Prisoner of the Vatican
 The Emancipation of the Serfs in Russia
 The Reform Bill of 1832
 The Life and Policies of Lloyd George
 The British Royal Family Today

INTERESTING PROJECTS YOU MAY LIKE TO UNDERTAKE

1. Draw a map of Europe showing political boundaries in 1815 and 1875.
2. Draw a map of Italy showing the stages in the process of unification.
3. Arrange dramatizations on some of the following topics: Bismarck and the Ems dispatch; a discussion between Earl Grey and an English peer in 1832; scenes in the life of Louis Napoleon, Cavour, Garibaldi, Disraeli, Gladstone; sessions of the English House of Commons in 1832, 1867, 1906, 1911; circumstances attending the accession of a new monarch in England.
4. Make entries for an imaginary diary of Louis Napoleon, Cavour, Bismarck, or Disraeli.
5. Draw cartoons showing some of the following: the relations of France and Germany at different times; conditions in Russia at various dates; the relations of other powers toward Russia.
6. Arrange a dialogue between the spirits of Louis Napoleon, Bismarck, Cavour, Alexander II, Disraeli, and Gladstone, in which they look upon the world today, and consider how their policies may have contributed toward making it what it is.
7. A dialogue between the Lion, the Bear, and the Cock.
8. Conversations between Americans and Englishmen at different dates; as 1833, 1848, 1856, 1865, 1874, 1911, 1936.
9. Continue your Chart of Trends in World Progress.

PLACES FOR FURTHER READING

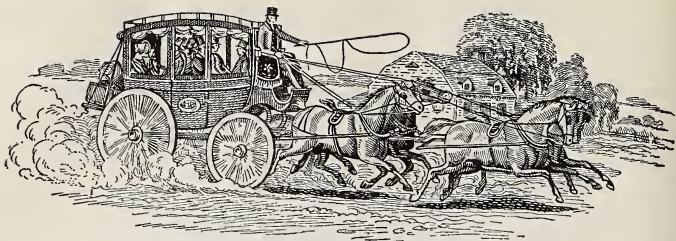
Hayes, *Political and Social History of Modern Europe*, Vol. II, Chs. XVII, XIX, XX, XXII-XXV
 Robinson and Beard, *Development of Modern Europe*, Vol. I, Chs. XI-XV; Vol. II, Chs. II, III
 Schapiro, *Modern and Contemporary European History*
 Benson, *Queen Victoria*
 Berry, *France since Waterloo*
 Bracq, *France under the Republic*
 Cesaresco, *Liberation of Italy*
 Collier, *England and the English*

Davis, *A History of France*
 Dawson, *The Evolution of Modern Germany*
 Fife, *The German Empire between Two Wars*
 Hazen, *Europe since 1815*
 Joy, *Ten Englishmen of the Nineteenth Century*
 King, *History of Italian Unity*
 Lowe, *Life of Bismarck*
 McCarthy, *England in the Nineteenth Century*
 Marriott, *England since Waterloo*
 Priest, *Germany since 1740*
 Robertson, *Bismarck*
 Robinson and Beard, *Readings in Modern European History*
 Thayer, *Throne-Makers*
 White, *Seven Great Statesmen*

Bazin, <i>The Children of Alsace</i>	Lowell, <i>Kossuth; Villafranca</i>
Bloem, <i>The Iron Year</i>	Meredith, <i>Vittoria</i>
Byron, <i>Isles of Greece</i>	Pemberton, <i>The Garden of Swords</i>
Chambers, <i>Ashes of Empire</i>	Seawell, <i>The Jugglers</i>
Clemens, <i>Innocents Abroad</i>	Steele, <i>Marmaduke</i>
Erckmann and Chatrian, <i>A Man of the People</i>	Tappan, <i>In the Days of Queen Victoria</i>
Haynes, <i>One of the Red Shirts</i>	Tolstoy, <i>Anna Karenina</i>
Henty, <i>Jack Archer</i>	Weyman, <i>Chippinge Borough</i>
Henty, <i>Young Franc-Tireurs</i>	Zola, <i>The Attack on the Mill</i>
Johnston, <i>The Man Who Did the Right Thing</i>	



LONDON BRIDGE, 1800



TRANSPORTATION A HUNDRED YEARS AGO

The stagecoach with its speeding horses was the most common means of travel for the country lords and ladies of these days. Railroads had not yet become popular to any great extent in any country, and, indeed, had not been widely constructed.

XIV. A NEW INDUSTRIAL AND SOCIAL ORDER

*Men, my brothers, men the workers, ever reaping something new;
That which they have done but earnest of the things that they shall do.*

— TENNYSON

*And you prate of the wealth of nations, as if it were bought and sold,
The wealth of nations is men, not silk and cotton and gold.*

— HOVEY

There were a number of things that the princes and other diplomats who had such a nice time at Vienna making over the map of Europe failed to consider. In the long run the things ignored at Vienna were far more important to the world than the things dealt with there. One great movement whose importance the Vienna diplomats did not realize — and about which they could have done nothing anyway — we know as the Industrial Revolution. It had already begun in England and was just beginning to make itself felt outside that country. To explain its meaning and its influence, we must turn aside for a little from politics and war and give some attention to those other phases of human life and interest which make up for most of us the greater part of our existence. It is a new world that we are living in compared with the one which produced the French Revolution.

Pointers for Our Study.

What was the Industrial Revolution? Where and how did it begin?

How fast and how far did the Industrial Revolution spread?

What names of inventive geniuses are connected with it?

What changes in the methods of carrying on industry and business did it bring about? Was agriculture similarly affected?

How did the Industrial Revolution bring about new attitudes and associations in business and among workers?

In what ways did the Industrial Revolution increase people's contacts with one another through transportation and communication?

Do people live more decently, healthfully, and comfortably than formerly?

In what ways has men's knowledge about the earth itself and the forces of Nature increased?

Have the "higher life" and culture of human beings been improved?

Are there any who want to make over the world still further? If so, what changes do they propose?

293. The World of 1750 and the World of Today. — Suppose you try to put yourself back to the middle of the eighteenth century, when George Washington was still a boy not much older than most of the people who are studying this book. If he wanted to travel, how did he go, and how fast and how much fun was there in it? If he wanted to amuse himself, what could he do? If he or any other young man of that time wanted to be educated, who would teach him, and who would pay for the teaching? By what means did people make a living in the Virginia colony where George Washington was brought up, and in the mother country under whose flag Washington served until he reached middle life? You can think of dozens of items to mention in pointing out the differences between the life of a young man of eighteen years in 1750 and such a life today.

Not only Julius Caesar but even Khufu of Egypt would have fully understood the way many things were done in 1750. In the days of those worthies, people farmed about the same as in 1750. They traveled at least as comfortably. Those at the top of society in their times had more comforts and conveniences than did George Washington in his youth. In the less than 200 years that have elapsed since the middle of the eighteenth century, greater change has taken place in people's methods of living and working and in their knowledge than in all the centuries before that time.

Why do you suppose people went so long without getting familiar with things that we consider fundamental in everyday life? Did people become enterprising all at once? Mention everyday features of business or life today of which probably George Washington never dreamed.

294. The Industrial Revolution in England. — What is a revolution anyway? Perhaps we usually connect it with war and bloodshed because many revolutions have been accompanied by such conditions. Anything may rightly be called a revolution, however, which brings about a complete change in the way things are done, whether in government, industry, or society.

The Industrial Revolution, which now claims our attention for a little while, was a tremendous change in the methods of carrying on industry. This change started in England in the eighteenth century and has never stopped. Its outstanding feature was the use of machines to take the place of, or to make more effective, the labor of human beings. In fact, we often speak of the age in which we are now living as the Machine Age, because so many of its activities, though directed, it is true, by human beings, are actually carried on by machines, which in turn are operated by some natural force that man has brought under his control, such as steam, water, or electricity.

We cannot set an exact date for the beginning of the Industrial Revolution, for it did not start all at once, nor in all countries at the same time. It was well in motion in England, however, by the last quarter of the eighteenth century. It reached some other countries many decades later. (Look at the time-graphs on pp. 390 and 484 for political events paralleling the beginning and spread of the Industrial Revolution, and refer to these time-graphs whenever they will help to get the story of this unit in correct relation to that of other units.)

Why did it begin in England? One reason was that England was perhaps the most progressive country in Europe; certainly more inventors and business men willing to try new methods were found there from 1760 onward than in any other country at the time. It was the readiest country in the world to take advantage of new ideas. Industry in England was freer from restraint and heavy taxation at the hands of the government than in most other countries. Besides, many of the first changes were in the manufacture of textiles — that is, woolen, linen, and cotton goods — and there was something about England's climate that was especially favorable to the manufacture of such goods. In constructing the new machines and in operating them by steam power, much

iron and coal were called for. England had both those commodities.

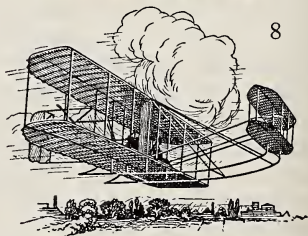
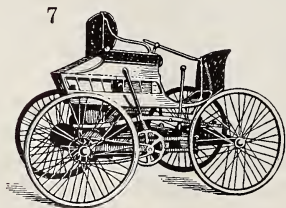
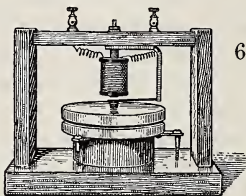
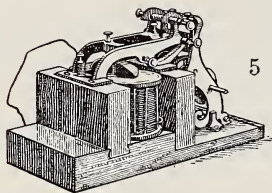
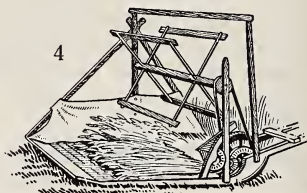
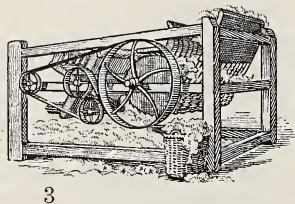
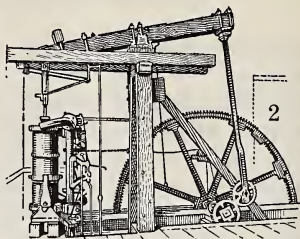
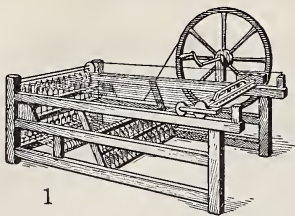
Besides, England had built up a large trade with her colonies and with other countries. She had merchant ships. She could sell her manufactured products abroad and buy in return the raw materials for her industries and food for her workers. For a long time no other country could compete with her in this respect. So in England the Industrial Revolution was firmly established before other countries took up the new methods at all.

Which of the three revolutions, which started not far apart in time — the American Revolution, the French Revolution, and the Industrial Revolution — do you think affected most extensively the lives of the people? How far do you suppose these revolutions had any effect upon one another?

295. Notable Inventions and Inventors of the Eighteenth Century. — A notable galaxy of inventors made England's Industrial Revolution a success. If the machines they made seem crude now, remember that they had to come before men would dare to devise the elaborate machinery of today. The real start of the movement came in 1733, when John Kay invented the flying shuttle. This made weaving much easier, because the shuttle could go back and forth with only one person to run the loom, instead of two as had been required.

An English weaver, James Hargreaves, worked out a machine which could spin eight threads at once and named it the "spinning jenny" in honor of his wife (1767). Later he made a "jenny" that would spin eighty threads at a time. Then an English barber, Richard Arkwright, devised a method by which the thread was run through a series of rollers and twisted so that it would be stronger. Because his machine ran by water power, he called it the "water frame" (1768). Samuel Crompton took some features from both of these machines and combined them in one which he called the "mule" (1779).

What a change! In 1760 women were spinning slowly and carefully one thread at a time. In 1780 a machine could spin two hundred threads at once. Now it was the weavers' turn to catch up with the improvements in spinning. A minister named Edmund Cartwright, who had never seen a machine until he began



SOME NOTABLE "FIRSTS"

1. Hargreaves' spinning jenny (1767); 2. Watt's first steam engine (1769); 3. Whitney's cotton gin (1793); 4. McCormick's reaper (1831); 5. Morse's telegraph recorder (1844); 6. Bell's first telephone (1875); 7. America's first gasoline car (1894); 8. A Wright Brothers airplane (1908).

to tinker with one, invented a power loom (1785) which greatly quickened the process of weaving.

At first these new machines were operated by muscle power or water power. Many mills sprang up along swift streams and rivers. Then a new force was brought under control which tremendously changed the whole situation — steam. Years before, Thomas Newcomen had built a crude steam engine to pump water out of mines (1705). In 1769 James Watt, in repairing one of these engines, worked out so great an improvement on it that we commonly call him the inventor of the steam engine. By 1785 he could turn other machinery with his steam engine.

To supplement the work of these Englishmen or Scotchmen came a Yankee's invention from across the Atlantic. A Connecticut schoolmaster named Eli Whitney, who was visiting in Georgia, invented a cotton "gin," first used in 1793. A slave had been able to clean the seeds from only five or six pounds of raw cotton in a day, but with Whitney's cotton gin one man could clean over 1000 pounds in that time. Cotton could now be furnished to English mills at a price they would readily pay. Unfortunately, however, this invention helped to fix slavery upon the southern states of the American Union for seventy years, since they thought they had to have Negro slaves to handle the cotton.

Is there anything strange in the fact that a barber, a minister, and a schoolmaster invented some of these epoch-making machines? Since the Renaissance made a new world intellectually and artistically, why do you suppose it did not also bring about inventions and discoveries in the field of manufacturing?

296. Industrial and Social Changes Resulting from the Revolution. — The first obvious change produced by the Industrial Revolution was the substitution of machinery for labor by hand or with small tools. The *guild* system, which grew up during the Middle Ages and under which industry was regulated in several parts of western Europe, had largely disappeared by the eighteenth century. Its place had been taken by the *domestic* system, so called because most manufacturing was done in small shops, which were either a part of the same building where the head of the establishment lived or closely connected with it. Work in such

places had to be done by hand with the aid of hand tools or machines that took up very little room.

The machines produced by the eighteenth-century inventors, however, were much bigger and cost money to make. Because they took up so much room, they could be operated only in buildings put up especially for that purpose. These buildings, to which the word "factory" was applied, gave the name to the new system — the *factory* system. Only people with money could afford to buy the new machines and put up the factories in which they were to be used. Moreover, since coal and iron were both needed to operate these new factories, those who built them put them as near as was feasible to the source of supply of that coal or iron. The result was a big shift of population in England from the south and east to the central and northern parts of the country. In the English midlands grew up manufacturing cities now famous the world over — Manchester, Birmingham, Sheffield, for example — where previously there had not been a single large town.

Have you seen any example in your own neighborhood or state of a similar growth of a factory town? Do you know any towns or cities which in all probability would not exist if it were not for some one great industry?

297. The Industrial Revolution Outside of England. — England at first tried to keep its new machinery for its own use, and did not allow it to be exported or any models or drawings of it to be carried out of the country. But Samuel Slater looked carefully at some of those machines and carried his observations in his head to Pawtucket, Rhode Island, where, in 1790, he built the first factory in the United States. Factories did not make much headway in the United States, however, until the war with Great Britain in 1812 to 1814. Then New Englanders, whose extensive merchant shipping was practically ruined by the commercial troubles of the time, began to turn their attention to manufacturing; and so by the close of that war a real start had been made toward a factory system in the United States.

The change went more slowly here than in England, however, as the records of the Patent Office prove. Until 1812 in no one year were as many as 80 patents for new inventions issued. Even as late as 1860 the number was only 5000, as compared with

the top record of 56,856 issued in 1932. After the Civil War, when this country really began to be industrial, it moved fast, and now is one of the great manufacturing nations of the world.

On the continent of Europe northern France and Belgium were most suited for the early introduction of the Industrial Revolution. Many people lived there in a comparatively small area. They could furnish the labor for factories, and coal mines and iron ore were handy. France as a whole has not even yet become a great factory nation, for on their farms, in their factories, and in their stores Frenchmen have preferred to do things on a small scale rather than a big one. But they early made a good reputation for the quality of their manufactured products.

In Germany the Industrial Revolution did not begin until well toward the middle of the nineteenth century. There and in the Scandinavian countries women continued to use the old-time spinning wheel. Under Bismarck, however, the government aided directly in transforming Germany into an industrial nation. Some of Germany's great cities became immense centers of manufacturing; and in Essen the Krupp factories became the most noted source in all the world for munitions and war supplies.

Today the Industrial Revolution has reached every continent. In Japan and in India are steel mills and other factories whose product is as good as any. Even Russia, so long content to have the great majority of its people peasant farmers, went in for industry on a big scale after World War I. Numerous countries still lack many up-to-date factories; but, after all, what would happen to the world if everybody wanted to own or work in a factory!

Why is it impossible for any country to control permanently the production of a new invention? What are our own laws with reference to patents and the production of goods made under those patents? Would the cause of international peace be encouraged or harmed if countries which had not been industrial made determined efforts to become so?

298. Changes in Agricultural Methods. — Many of the workers in the new factories were drawn away from farms. Now if those who were left on the farms produced no more than they did before, what would the factory workers live on? Improvement in farming methods would doubtless have come anyway, but the changes in

industry helped to hurry it along. As early as the first half of the eighteenth century, Jethro Tull, who traveled in France and Italy, found that some of the methods used there would be suitable for English farmers as well. An English nobleman named Townshend experimented particularly with the rotation of crops, and discovered that wheat, turnips, clover, and other crops could be planted on the same ground year after year if they were changed around — land did not need to be entirely idle any time. Robert Bakewell devoted most of his time to improving the quality of farm animals. Instead of growing little scrubby cattle and bony pigs he introduced scientific breeding, and in several years a considerable improvement was brought about in the general size and quality of farm animals.

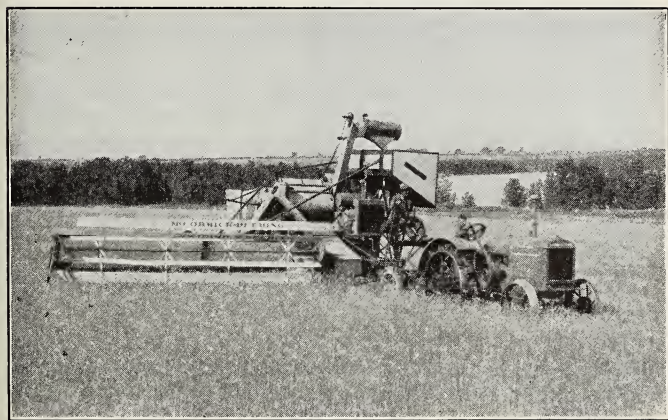
Agriculture in England for many years differed from that in many other countries. English landed estates were often large, while in France small farms were characteristic. England could not produce enough to feed her people, and found that she had to repeal her "corn laws" which had encouraged English landowners to raise grain at home (§ 286). One may still see in Germany and some other countries farm after farm planted in long, narrow strips, as was done in the days of the old feudal estates. There is not much use for a big mowing machine or reaper in such places. But very little land went unused.

Machinery did, however, find a place on farms in countries where it could be used to advantage. The United States, which had many large farms and plantations, took the lead in the manufacture of farm machinery. A cast-iron plow was patented about 1795, but some farmers would not use it for fear it would poison the ground and ruin the crops. In the 1830's McCormick's reaper began an almost revolutionary change in farming methods. Many other inventions followed; so that now on a big farm in the United States or Canada plowing, harrowing, and harvesting are almost all done by machinery. Yet here, as in some of the older parts of the world, the sickle and scythe, and similar farm implements of the old days, are all that the workers on some farms know.

Why was it not so easy for the Industrial Revolution to have an immediate effect on farming as on manufacturing? Do you think the owners of large farms would be more progressive, or less, than the owners



Courtesy International Harvester Company



HARVESTING, OLD AND NEW

The upper picture shows men cutting grain in the best way then known. They are using an instrument known as a cradle, which was introduced into this country about 1776. It was really a sort of scythe with a frame of four wooden fingers attached to it. The lower picture shows how such work is done on a big farm today, with none of the backbreaking toil of olden times.

of small farms? What nations would you not expect to be able to provide all the farm products that their people might desire?

299. New Forces and Inventions of the Nineteenth and Twentieth Centuries. — The growing use of iron in industry was a notable feature of the early years of the Industrial Revolution. But as the demand for new and heavy machinery increased, something stronger than iron was needed. By mixing a certain amount of carbon with melted iron, chemists discovered that steel could be made. The modern steel industry owes its origin largely to the "Bes'semer process," named after the Englishman Sir Henry Bessemer. The American William Kelley also deserves mention for achievement in the same line.

As iron and steel began to be manufactured on a large scale, charcoal as a fuel was no longer satisfactory. Coal largely took its place. The production of coal had been cheapened by improvements in methods of mining, and made more humane by Sir Humphry Davy's invention of the safety lamp (1816). This saved the lives of thousands of miners who might otherwise have been killed through explosions of deadly gases.

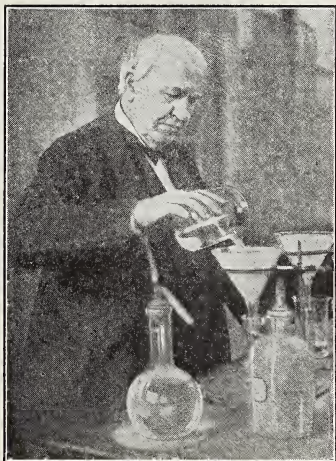
But coal, too, had its inconveniences. It was not found everywhere, and it was dirty. Some countries were fortunate enough to have a supply of natural gas and petroleum, and by the beginning of the twentieth century thoughtful nations were looking the world over for new supplies of these things. Oil became an industrial rival of coal and a matter for nations to quarrel about. Today it furnishes power for many means of locomotion.

Then came the invisible power of electricity. Innumerable discoveries and inventions have made it the servant of man. Benjamin Franklin found that lightning is electricity (1752). The Italian physicist Luigi Galvani (lu ě'jē gal vā'nē) discovered the existence of the electric current, and Alessandro Volta (1800) invented a chemical battery for producing electricity. Michael Far'aday by 1831 was able to make electric power move machinery. Famous experimenters in electricity in comparatively recent years are Thomas A. Edison, the wizard of many inventions, and Guglielmo Marconi, inventor of the wireless telegraph (1897). If certain periods in the past may have been the "age of iron," or the "age of steam," so may the future be the "age of

electricity"; for water and steam and oil can all produce this force, which can be carried many miles away from the place of its production, and that cannot be said of any other source of industrial power.

When inventive genius once gets going, there is no stopping it. In the nineteenth century a vast number of experimenters and inventors appeared in the field of transportation and communication. The names of some of these we may mention later (§ 306). In many cases so many people have had some part in the development of some invention or method that no *one* can claim particular credit for it. Who, even though he were a radio expert, could tell you offhand the name of everybody who has had a part in the development of that relatively new means of service and amusement? Experiment and invention have even become the life work of many men and some women. Every great manufacturing establishment has its experimental laboratories which employ people to do nothing else than to find cheaper or better ways to do things, and some men seem to be blessed with new ideas in connection with almost everything in which they take an interest.

Among the many who may deserve mention for some particular achievement was Daguerre (dä gâr'), the Frenchman whose experiments laid the foundation for modern photography. Elias Howe's sewing machine has not only played a part in factory labor but has relieved wonderfully the work of women in many a home. Charles Goodyear, after much experimenting, finally discovered a process for hardening rubber so as to make it usable for wear or



THOMAS A. EDISON © Keystone

Edison frequently worked sixteen hours a day in his laboratory long after he had reached the age when many men think they should retire.

in many other ways. What should we do today without rubber! The German Daimler (dīm'ler) invented an internal combustion engine which has played a big part in industrial developments in recent years. Others also worked along the same line. Without their accomplishments could we have our automobiles?

Some would rank as chief of all modern inventors Thomas A. Edison. Perhaps the most useful of all his inventions was the arc lamp (1879). Not only in the field of electricity but in countless other lines his genius has contributed to make modern life more efficient and comfortable. Moving pictures and the phonograph are due to him more than perhaps any other one person. We might call his entire life one grand scientific experiment.

Have there been any great inventors coming out of Asia? Is there something in the makeup of many Asiatic people that makes them contented with what they already have instead of reaching out for something new? Do new inventions always make life happier?

300. Standards and Conveniences for Trade. — Since neither nations nor individuals are in a position to swap rubber for wheat, or iron for sugar, directly, there has to be some sort of *medium of exchange* which will be readily accepted by at least one of the parties in any trade. Such a thing we call *money*. One serious inconvenience to trade between nations has been the lack of uniform money. Each country has adopted its own standard of coinage or currency without caring much whether it was like that of any other country in the world. Canada, the United States, and Mexico all have dollars, it is true, and most of the time Canada's dollar and the dollar of the United States are worth about the same; but we cannot say the same of such neighbors as France and Germany or Italy, or Russia and Poland, or Hungary and Rumania. Most countries, however, are willing enough to take gold in any shape — bars or coins — and have adopted it as the foundation for their money systems. India and China like silver better than gold.

Gold has not always been very abundant, but in normal and peaceful times a relatively small amount of it will support many times its worth of business. Whether measured by dollars or pounds or francs or whatever other unit you choose, the great majority of all large business transactions are carried on without

the use of money at all. *Credit* takes its place. People will take one's *promise* to pay about as readily as his money if they think they can get his money when they want it. Here banks render one of their most common and useful services—one that would, by itself, be enough to justify their great increase in modern days in numbers and influence. You may write checks against the money you have left in their care, give a note to be paid by them out of those funds, and thus avoid handling large amounts of gold or any other money.

A system of *international credit* grew up. In some countries a great central bank developed, such as the Bank of France, or the Bank of England, which, though privately managed, served about the same purpose, or the Reichsbank, and now in the United States a Federal Reserve System. But private banking houses — the Morgans

of New York, or the Barings of London, for example — would buy and sell bills of exchange to be sent by mail or otherwise from country to country more easily and safely than gold. Few



SOME EUROPEAN PAPER MONEY

How much would each of these be worth at today's exchange figures? Why the different languages on the Swiss note?

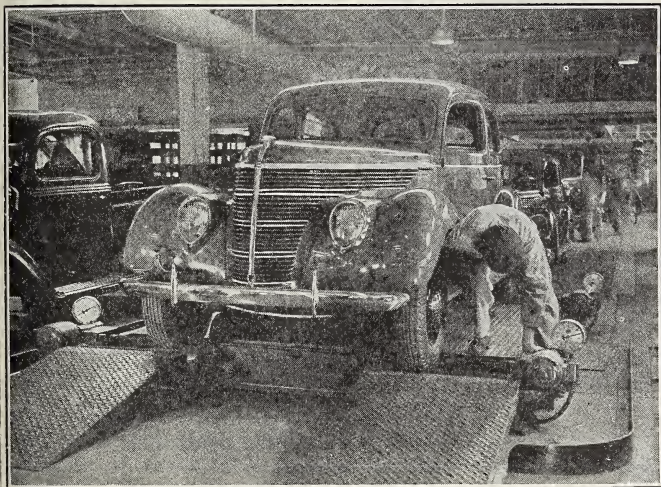
tourists traveling from country to country would think of carrying around any large sum of money. A *letter of credit* or a supply of *traveler's checks*, bought before they left home, would be cashed when they wanted money in Japan or Germany or Egypt.

Neither gold nor credit will of itself keep a country comfortable. All the great nations have passed through alternating periods of good times and bad times, prosperity and depression. Great wars have been invariably followed within a few years, if not at once, by periods of financial distress. During wars and "depression" times country after country is forced to "go off the gold standard" — that is, to refuse to exchange gold for its paper money — and sometimes a country does so without being forced. Then only paper money and small coins can be had, and their value goes up or down in accordance with people's ideas as to a country's ability or desire to pay its debts or get back to a sound money basis again.

If you were going to send \$1000 to London or any other foreign capital, in how many ways might you do it? If a depression starts in one country, are others likely to be affected by it?

301. New Attitudes and Outlooks in Business. — Hargreaves' spinning jenny or even Cartwright's power loom would look crude and tiny beside the great steel monsters that make cloth in a modern factory. The difference between eighteenth-century business and that of today, however, is not limited to machinery, but shows itself in the very management of industry. Planning the industry and making the goods that are to come out of it are both done on a grand scale. A factory employs perhaps thousands of people. It buys its raw material in enormous quantities. It makes and sells things by the thousands or hundreds of thousands instead of by the dozen. From its machines come thousands of articles exactly alike. *Large-scale production*, or *mass production*, as it is sometimes called, has become typical of present-day industry in many countries. By such methods goods may be produced much more cheaply and bring a greater profit to their producer, whether he chooses to sell them in limited numbers at a high price or in larger quantities at a low price. Probably he will prefer the latter and thus for no unselfish reason will make it possible for thousands of families to get the benefit of his product who never could have had it under old-time methods.

Moreover, large-scale business cannot limit itself to one small area, as could the old-time shoemaker or ironmaster. Perhaps some of the needed raw material comes from the neighborhood of the factory, but much of it from hundreds or thousands of miles away. The manufacturer of automobiles might get his iron, steel, and glass from other factories in other communities, his rubber from



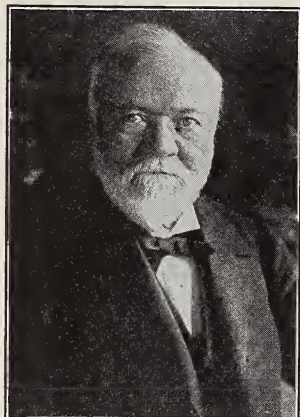
Big Business in the Modern Manner

Mass production here, without any question! This picture was taken in one of the Ford plants, of which there are more than thirty.

distant continents, and sell his cars anywhere under the sun that he can get someone to buy them. Different sections of a country depend upon other sections to furnish them the things they need to eat or wear or use in business, and nations no longer think they can successfully maintain themselves without using the products of other lands.

Interdependence of men, districts, and nations is one outgrowth of the Industrial Revolution. Some countries, of which England is a notable example, have to depend upon others to supply the food to keep their people alive. A man who spends a good share of

his waking hours in a factory or mine is not going to be able to produce very much "on the side" to feed and clothe himself and



© Harris and Ewing

ANDREW CARNEGIE

Perhaps this Scotch boy who became a famous American was lucky in becoming associated with people who could help him get ahead. But he was a hard worker and a keen judge of men and opportunities.

his family. That was not so bad for England in one way, because the same ships which carried the products of English factories to other parts of the world might come back with cargoes of things that England had to import. Not only England but the United States and Germany and France had to import all the rubber they used; England had tin but no copper; the United States had copper but little tin; Germany and France had neither to amount to anything. The industrial nations have been tied to each other by so many needs and services that they became a great world family, with all the common interests and the chances for squabbling that so often arise in ordinary families.

Mention other materials used in industry which the United States cannot supply in sufficient quantity from within its own borders; materials that England must import. Do you think that on the whole this interdependence of nations tends to encourage business and good will, or the opposite?

To make business organizations more permanent, corporations have become common. A *corporation* is formed by a group of people who get a charter from a government, authorizing them to engage in some mentioned kind of activity. The corporation continues to exist even after its original organizers die. The corporation may sell stock to anybody who will buy it, and by issuing bonds may borrow the savings of hundreds or thousands of people and invest them in one business venture. The more money people save, the more is available to invest. When times

are good, people are encouraged to employ savings as *capital* in new activities. Those who can furnish capital may acquire power and prestige not only in industry, but otherwise, for modern industry must have capital.

Great combinations of capital, sometimes called *trusts*, have come into being, either because one person or a few people wanted to dominate a whole industry, or because it seemed the most efficient way to do business. We may not always like it when we discover how far-reaching has been the financial power of a Carnegie (car nā'gie), a Rockefeller, or a Morgan; but if it had not been for some such men, modern business would have achieved far less than it has. Perhaps you will ask, "Would it in the long run have been better otherwise?"

Is it a good thing that nations have to depend upon others for important materials? Is a desk or a book likely to be better made by one worker or by a big establishment? If no worker or family had ever laid by more than \$10,000, would the world of today have made the progress that it has?

302. Changes in the Relation of Government and Industry. —

Here was a troublesome new question raised by the existence of the big factories: Should their owners be subject to any restriction as to what they might or might not do? Adam Smith's *The Wealth of Nations*, published in 1776, had an immense influence upon the thinking of those times. No doubt he sincerely believed his theories, but they certainly fitted in just right with the wishes and notions of most factory owners.

Adam Smith advocated as a fundamental principle the doctrine of *laissez faire* (lā zā fair). That French term we may translate "let things alone" or "let things take their own course." Said Smith, "Every man as long as he does not violate the laws of justice is left perfectly free to pursue his own interests in his own way and to bring both his industry and capital into competition with those of any other man." Such a policy would give business men the freest possible opportunity to run their industries so as to make all the money out of them they could.

But how did the policy of *laissez faire* work out? Very badly, you will say, if you think of the terrible conditions under which men, women, and children often were forced to work (§ 304), and

the "cutthroat competition" which drove employers to do things that in their own hearts they often detested. So *laissez faire* had to give way to the doctrine of *government regulation*. Governments, we now believe, not only may tell industry how long a working day may be, but may regulate the conditions under which all workers may be employed, and set up standards with which every employer must comply. Today *laissez faire*, in most people's thinking, is completely "out" as an industrial principle.

England found for many years, however, that in one respect *laissez faire* was a profitable policy. Under the belief that England should produce everything she needed herself, as far as she could, she had her corn laws, which were simply a protective tariff on grain, and numerous other "protective" laws about imports. When she learned, however, that she could manufacture many things more cheaply than other countries could, and that she could buy food supplies abroad more cheaply than she could raise them, protective tariffs seemed to harm rather than help her. So England threw away the whole "protective" idea, and not until after the first World War did her government think it desirable to return to some measures of "protection."

In some European countries, especially in Germany, it became common to organize combinations of industrial concerns called *cartels*. These combinations may undertake to settle the amount of goods any member may produce and perhaps also to regulate the price. A government might sometimes encourage the forming of cartels, on the theory that it could deal more easily with the group as a whole than with each member singly. But if the power of the cartel should be used so as to raise prices beyond what the public ought to pay, the government might find it necessary to restrict the cartel rather closely.

Today the question is often asked: Should there be any limit to a government's control over business and industry in the interest of all the people? Should such *public utilities* as the post office, a power system, or a railway system be managed by the government or by private citizens? Here in the United States we started one way with the post office and the other way with the railroads and other "utilities." British railways were privately managed for a long time, but the telephone became a

part of the postal system, and the Labor party's victory in 1945 caused the government to adopt several changes looking toward Socialism. On the continent of Europe there are many examples of government-owned railroads apparently doing as well as similar organizations under private management in those countries.

Tendencies in the direction of greater activity by the government, either in controlling or in operating public utilities, were encouraged in the United States by the depression years of the early 1930's. Some of the laws passed by Congress which looked in this direction were set aside by the Supreme Court as unconstitutional, but enough of them were sustained to make it very evident that the future will see a much greater exercise of authority by the federal government along these lines than we have had in the past.

If our national government had begun to build railroads before anybody else did in this country, do you think we would look upon government-operated railroads as a perfectly normal thing? What public utilities do you think most suitable for a government to operate?

303. How the Industrial Revolution Changed the Situation of Workers. — When workers first realized that with the new machines one man could do the work that had previously called for many, they jumped to the conclusion that these inventors were enemies of their class. Even Hargreaves was driven from his home town because workers broke into his house and ruined his machine. Often, however, the machines could make goods so much more easily and cheaply that many more people could buy and use the newly manufactured goods. So there was an increased demand for workers to produce them; and in time the industry needed more workers to operate the machines than it had required when most work was done by hand.

But workers, instead of doing their daily tasks side by side with the head of the business, were simply hired by him just as he might rent or buy a machine. They furnished only their muscle and the small amount of brains needed to watch the machine and keep it going. Hundreds or even thousands of them would work in the same establishment, and few of them could be known to the employer personally. Thus began the separation between workers and employers which has marked "big business" ever since, and

which has been responsible for many unpleasant events in the world of industry.

Under the new system one worker did not perform all the steps in the making of cloth, or a pair of shoes, or something else. *Division of labor* became necessary, with one part of a job assigned to one man and another part to another. As the factory system developed, the division of labor was carried steadily down to more and more limited tasks.

In the old days a worker might hope to be sometime a "master" of his trade and have a little shop of his own; but what chance did a low-paid factory worker have of owning a factory! He could not afford to buy even the one machine he operated. Employer and employee each needed the other; friendliness and good will were as valuable as ever, but harder than ever to bring about.

Under the new system the worker had to be paid in money rather than in the products of the business. What could a worker do with his pay if he got it in the form of shoes, woollen cloth, or steel rails! Besides, only a little of the whole work was his own, because so many workers had a part in making one article. The machine made every article alike anyway. Not much to arouse the creative spirit in such work, as compared with making a whole shoe or suit or chest himself! The worker simply took money for spending hours of drudgery in a factory.

304. Working Conditions That Needed Correction. — Factory owners frequently found themselves in desperate competition with rival owners. To make their business profitable, they employed workers for any price they would take — and the workers had to take pretty small wages, because there was competition among them as well as among the employers. Committees of Parliament that finally investigated conditions were shocked, but to England's credit she tried to remedy the evils when they became known (§ 286).

Hours of labor lasted from daylight until dark. Even children nine years old worked unbelievably long and hard. In the factories and in mines children and women sometimes toiled twelve, fourteen, or fifteen hours a day. There was almost no effort to keep factories decent and clean or provide any facilities for health

and sanitation. Yet don't be too harsh on England for this. Maybe conditions are not yet what they should be everywhere! This was a new problem she had to deal with. Remember that we are speaking of conditions one hundred or more years ago, when everybody's working day was long and when work in factories was patterned after the long hours on farms in the summer season.



BELL-TIME

This was the title Winslow Homer gave to this drawing. You see the pails and baskets in which these New England factory workers — men, women, and children — carried their lunches.

England at least set the example for other countries in providing for supervision and regulation of private business to an extent that had not been at all possible before.

Factory inspectors were provided for, who had the power to investigate factories and bring to court factory owners who failed to comply with the new laws. Children in particular were limited to twelve hours a day or sixty-nine hours a week; and if they were under thirteen, to eight hours a day or forty-eight hours a week. Women and children must not be employed at work in mines under ground. Women's work in factories was reduced to twelve hours a day and soon afterward to ten.

Mrs. Browning's poem, *The Cry of the Children*, helped considerably to make people realize the toil required of some of these helpless young people. Sometimes we think that our own country needed a Mrs. Browning, for the same kind of labor conditions were to be found here as in England. Factory work had not yet come to play the important part in the life of our working people, however, that it had attained in England in the 1840's. Every civilized nation has now been through a corresponding experience, and it is probable that child labor in factories and mines is near its end in civilized lands.

305. The Growth of Organized Labor.—The Industrial Revolution gave many new openings for manual workers, but at the same time it weakened their capacity to look out for themselves. Children working long hours a day and older workers getting the slimmest kind of wages could hardly be expected to spend much time improving themselves mentally, in school or out. Yet the hundreds of workers in a great manufacturing establishment might find some among their number who could be leaders, and these would help the workers to act together so as to gain influence in politics for themselves and schooling for their children. The great movements for democracy in England and the setting up of public schools in the United States were in part the result of demands for equal rights by tradesmen and factory workers in the cities.

In the early 1820's when workers started to form what we now call labor unions or trade unions, they promptly met a serious legal obstacle. Any attempts at union on the part of these workers were called conspiracies, and to take part in them or even to plan for them was considered a punishable offense. In 1825, however, the English Parliament passed an act which set the unions free from this charge of conspiracy.

Union organization has taken several forms. The early unions were often limited to one city or one trade in a city. Often such unions have been expanded by the enrollment of other "groups" in the same trade in other industries or cities, as we have now the United Garment Workers or the Longshoremens's Union. These are known as *trade* or *craft* unions. Others, like the United Mine Workers or the Transport Workers' Union, have preferred the *industrial* or *vertical* union, which would include all kinds of workers

connected with a certain industry. Different unions might also combine in such nation-wide organizations as the American Federation of Labor and the Congress of Industrial Organizations.

Workers have not agreed as to whether they would get more benefit by supporting some regular political party or going into politics as a separate party. In England in the twentieth century the Labor party became strong, and one member of it, Ramsay MacDonald, was twice prime minister. In 1945 the party got full control of the House of Commons, with Clement R. Attlee as Prime Minister. In the United States, labor unions did not support the same party all the time, but the Democrats probably received more labor votes than the Republicans. On the continent, factory workers have often united under the Socialist name, though they did not necessarily favor all the teachings of Socialists (§ 321).

How much of the credit for the many gains of labor in the last hundred years belongs to the unions and how much to public sentiment stirred up by unselfish reformers, nobody can tell. Today in civilized countries it is a disgrace for an employer not to provide reasonably good working conditions. Machinery must be guarded so that belts, saws, and other possibly dangerous equipment will not injure a worker or perhaps take his life. Hours of labor have gone down from fourteen or fifteen per day to eight or less for men, and for women and children still further restrictions are imposed. Workmen's compensation laws, old-age pension systems, and other forms of social insurance have been adopted by many countries.

One feature which unions have been anxious to secure is *collective bargaining*. They want wages and conditions of work to be arranged by representatives of a union in behalf of all its members instead of each workman's dealing with the employer separately, and when they think they can get it are likely to ask for the *closed shop*, in which none but union members may be employed. Several times in European cities there have been general strikes, usually short-lived, when all unions in many industries quit work at the same time in order to bring pressure to bear upon the government or upon the employers in some industry where there was trouble.

In what kinds of industries or occupations would it be difficult for unions to perform and operate successfully? Is there any advantage in

an eight-hour day as compared with one of ten or twelve hours, outside of the fact that the worker probably does not get so tired in the shorter time? Do you think such policies as unemployment insurance make workers lazy and unwilling to try hard to get jobs? Should anything be unlawful for a union to do which would be lawful for an individual, or vice versa?

306. Progress in Bringing the World Together. — In the middle of the eighteenth century very few people traveled far for pleasure and only those who had to do so, for business. One who was going on a long journey probably made his will first. Roads were



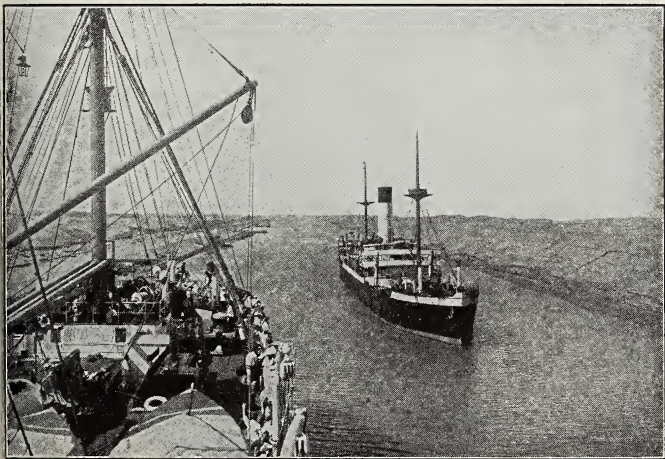
THE UNITED STATES MAIL

This old Oklahoma stagecoach carried not only mail but also passengers for a good many years. How would it compare in comfort with a present-day bus?

very poor. A first-class stagecoach with four or six horses might make fifty miles a day if it traveled from dawn until dark. Boats were still driven by the wind or rowed by hand. The Industrial Revolution called for better methods of transportation because coal and raw material had to be carried to the factory and the products of the factory taken to market.

Better highways were an early improvement in transportation. Often private individuals or companies were allowed to make roads and charge toll for their use. Two men who did much toward improving highways were the Englishman Telford and the Scotchman MacAd'am. We still build roads according to MacAdam's idea, and call them "macadamized" after his name.

Because such roads were expensive, much canal-building took place on the continent of Europe, in England, and in the United States, in the latter part of the eighteenth century and through most of the first half of the nineteenth century. By building locks and dams, canals could be constructed in spite of water-falls and hills. For a time canals seemed such a tremendous improvement that people became over-enthusiastic about them. They



STEAMERS IN THE SUEZ CANAL

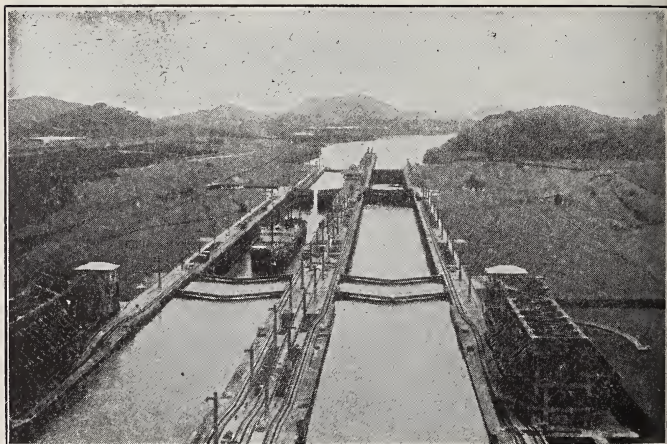
Publishers' Photo

Observe the nearly level country which this canal cuts through. Considerable contrast between this and the mountains and locks in the picture on page 576.

did not realize that a faster means of transportation was coming — the railroad, which ruined many a canal company.

Some canals have been of immense value to certain countries and even to the entire world of commerce. Think of the "Soo" Canal between Lake Superior and Lake Huron, opened for use in 1855. More freight is carried on this canal — coal in one direction and iron ore or wheat in the other, quite largely — than through any other canal in the world. The Erie Canal, the longest ever constructed, 363 miles, opened up the central part of New York State for settlement and made the carrying of goods

between the Great Lakes and the Atlantic Ocean by way of the Hudson River much easier. The Welland Canal, connecting Lake Erie and Lake Ontario, has recently been improved so that some good-sized boats can pass all the way through the Great Lakes; and if more improvements are made in the St. Lawrence River, these same boats can cross the Atlantic Ocean.



IN THE PANAMA CANAL

This picture shows unusually well the operation of the Miraflores Locks. Notice the tracks along the sides for the little engines which help to pull ships through the locks. It has been proposed to construct a third system of locks at some points.

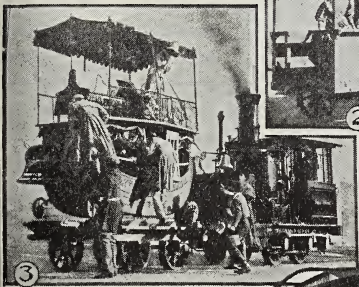
Two famous canals cut continents apart. The first of these was the Suez Canal, opened for use in 1869. It was constructed by a French company under the direction of Ferdinand de Lesseps'. So important is this stretch of water to the British government as a means of reducing the distance by water between England and India that under Disraeli the British government purchased a controlling influence in the stock of the Suez Canal Company. The Panama Canal seems of equal importance to the United States. The work at Panama started under a French company who employed the same de Lesseps who dug the Suez Canal. But the company got into trouble and the work stopped until,



1. The first railroad passenger car in America. Horse-drawn, but it traveled on rails.



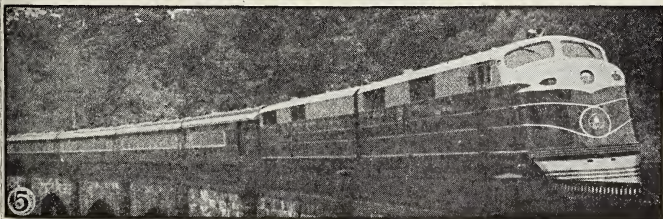
2. Peter Cooper's "Tom Thumb," the first American-built engine.



3. Another early engine and coach.



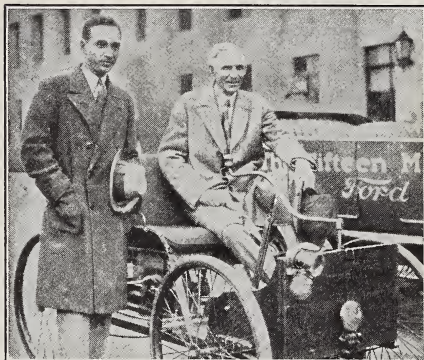
4. An engine and coaches of Civil War time.



5. A streamlined train.

TRANSPORTATION ON THE B. AND O.

under President Theodore Roosevelt (rō'zē velt), the United States government bought the rights of the French company and acquired the Canal Zone. This great enterprise was put under the direction of General George W. Goethals (gō'thals) of the Engineering



Courtesy Ford Motor Company

EDSEL AND HENRY FORD

Beside the first Ford car is the fifteen millionth.

Corps of the United States Army. The Canal was opened to traffic in 1914, although not entirely completed until 1920.

The use of steam for power, instead of winds or muscle, revolutionized ocean shipping and changed tremendously water transportation on rivers and lakes. Robert Fulton's boat, the *Clermont*, puffed up the Hudson River to Albany in 1807. Others

had experimented with the steamboat before his time, but he was the first to make it a business success. The steamboat immensely increased international trade, though sailing vessels continued to be used for years. Today steamship companies can send boats carrying hundreds of passengers across the Atlantic in five days or even less. The use of iron and steel in the construction of freighters and passenger boats has made them much safer and more serviceable.

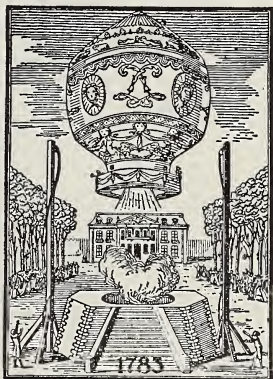
Greatly important as the steamboat was, perhaps the railroad was still more significant. Near the beginning of the nineteenth century an Englishman named Richard Trev'ithick experimented with traveling engines driven by steam. The English Parliament, which could not have had much imagination, put an end to some of these early enterprises by requiring that any such machine traversing the roads of England must have a man go ahead of it carrying a red flag. Another Englishman, however, George Stephenson, put steam to use in such a way that we call him the

inventor of the locomotive (1814; first steam-drawn passenger train, 1825). This had to travel on special tracks, but it was an immense improvement.

The first railroad system in the United States was the Baltimore and Ohio, which was begun in 1828. In that same year France began to build railroads, and a few years later some appeared in Belgium and Germany. As the years went on, the tracks, the roadbeds, the engines, the cars, and everything connected with railroad transportation steadily became better and safer. Today railroads reach every part of the civilized world where many people live and have even made their way into the heart of Africa.

Later the automobile promised to do to the railroad what the railroad once did to the canal. Men had talked about a "horseless carriage" for some time, but it was well toward the end of the nineteenth century before the dream began to come true. An automobile or a truck cannot even yet carry as big and heavy loads as the railroad, but it can go much oftener and nearly as fast and can go almost anywhere that a horse and wagon can make their way. To get full advantage of their speed, however, automobiles must have smooth roads without too much grade. So governments have had to spend more money on good roads than ever before. The people of the United States have far more "autos" than any other country; but every land has them, and today they can cross on regular schedule the deserts of the Near East and of Africa.

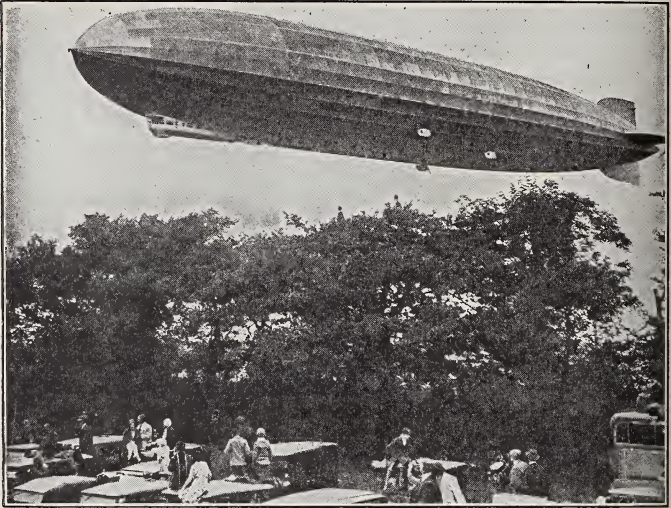
Men thus gained some command over land and water; must they leave the air to the birds? In the later eighteenth century two Frenchmen, Joseph and Jacques (zhäk) Montgolfier, sent



THE FIRST BALLOON

The Montgolfiers sent this up on November 20, 1783. Notice how it was inflated. Benjamin Franklin saw this experiment and predicted that the balloon might have considerable usefulness. The plane, rather than the balloon, has proved to be the outstanding means of air travel.

balloons up successfully. Balloons still have their uses, but who can tell where a balloon is going to land or how fast it will travel? Regular air traffic had to wait until men could put



© Express Photos, Ltd.

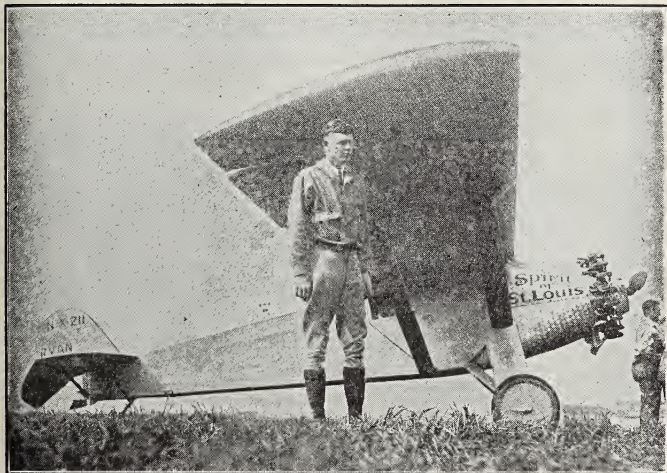
THE GRAF ZEPPELIN ON A VISIT TO ENGLAND

The craft must have been well under control. Notice how it just misses the treetops.

wings on engines. S. P. Langley succeeded in getting a machine to travel a short distance near Washington in 1896. In 1903 the Wright brothers on the coast of North Carolina kept a heavier-than-air machine in motion long enough to prove that travel in the air was really possible. Englishmen, Frenchmen, and Germans also experimented in the same field, and in Europe the airplane first came to be a practical and regular means of transportation.

Airplanes came to run on schedule, except in very bad weather, between the great cities of all the continents. Zeppelins, such as the one pictured above, have not become so important as it was once thought they might. Charles A. Lindbergh in 1927 was the first to cross the Atlantic in a small plane flying solo. Aircraft

became tremendously important in war, and great aircraft companies have tried to build up a popular demand for their services all the time.



THE MOST FAMOUS OF ALL AIRPLANES

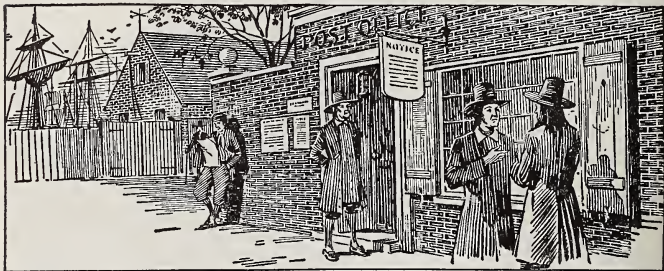
The Spirit of St. Louis, which carried the then almost unknown Charles A. Lindbergh from New York to Paris in May, 1927.

Why do you suppose it took so long for men to succeed in their attempt to conquer the air? Why are there so many more automobiles in the United States than in all the rest of the world? How many kinds of highway construction do you know about? Why do so many boys today think they want to be aviators? Will the time come when every family has its own airplane?

307. Improvements in Sending News and Messages. — A regular means of sending messages is important to any live nation. Yet postal routes were no better in the eighteenth century than in ancient Rome or perhaps even in Persia. There would probably have been no war between the United States and Great Britain in 1812 if there had been an Atlantic cable; it still took about a month for a passenger, a message, or a cargo to cross the Atlantic. When the *Sirius* and the *Great Western* did this in 1838 under

steam power in about fifteen days, it was marked as a tremendous achievement.

Postal systems have almost always been controlled and handled by governments. All the great nations now send mail by land, sea, and air; and since 1875 there has been the Universal Postal Union, which is maintained by co-operation of almost all the nations and provides service among all its members. Postal



Courtesy American Telephone and Telegraph Company

AN EIGHTEENTH-CENTURY POST OFFICE

The notice advises the public that when the street door is shut and no lighted candle or lantern is visible, people may be assured "that there is no post yet come in."

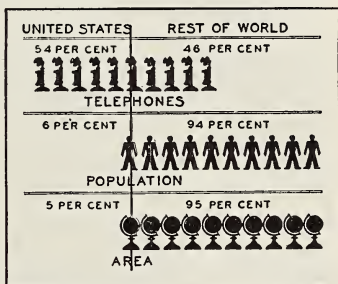
systems carry both messages and packages. In Great Britain and some other countries the telephone and the telegraph are a part of the national system of communication. An Englishman, Rowland Hill, first made use of the postage stamp, in 1840, so that postage might be paid by the sender rather than by the one who received the mail. Now governments issue new stamps on almost every imaginable excuse.

But even the post office is too slow for many people, at least at certain times. Electricity does the business. The work of Samuel F. B. Morse with his telegraph and Alexander Graham Bell and others of his time with the telephone has gone "to the ends of the earth" and under the seas. Cyrus W. Field succeeded after many disappointments in linking Europe and America with an Atlantic cable (1857, 1866). Now many cables lie on the bed of the Atlantic, and others have tied up the rest of the world with the Philippines, China, Japan, and Australia.

One of the most astounding discoveries or inventions enables us to send sound through the air without the use of wires. The Italian Marconi sent a recognizable message across the Atlantic by wireless telegraph in 1901. Others made the telephone wireless also. Now we have radio stations reaching every part of the world that cares to be reached. Besides numerous privately managed radio stations or associations, many governments maintain their own means of communication by radio. By means of television, people away from Washington saw, as well as heard, President Truman take the oath of office in January, 1949. Television is making great progress, both in equipment and in the number of channels provided.

But still we have not mentioned the most important agency for carrying news — the newspaper. As long as messages and bits of information came only at irregular intervals, there was not much encouragement to publish newspapers. Even ancient peoples put up bulletins in public places announcing events that seemed worth telling the public about, but it was not until the latter part of the seventeenth century that newspapers were printed and circulated at all regularly. Many of the early newspapers published literary articles as well as news, and carried advertising to help pay expenses. Today few newspapers could exist without their advertisers.

Every great nation now has its newspapers. In countries where freedom of speech is the rule, there is also usually freedom of the press, and newspapers may print almost anything and comment on it. In some countries, however, the government keeps a watchful eye on every newspaper, because through the newspapers many people get their ideas and opinions. A notable recent development in both England and the United States is



Courtesy American Telephone and Telegraph Co.

THE WORLD'S TELEPHONES

Why do you suppose the United States has so many more telephones than the rest of the world in proportion to its area and population?

the forming of great chains of newspapers owned and controlled by one man or a few men. Newspapers have also joined in organizations — the Associated Press, the United Press, and the International News Service, for example — to gather news from everywhere and send it to the members of their association.

Do you think newspapers do more to *express* opinions or to *form* them? How much do the things you read in newspapers influence your attitude toward public questions? Find the names of leading newspapers in several countries and be able to tell some of their characteristics. If you were the editor or publisher of a newspaper, would you think it necessary to belong to some one of the various associated news services? Why wasn't the radio made practical sooner?

308. Some Effects of Closer Associations. — Since these conveniences of transportation and communication have come into use, nations no longer need to try to provide everything for themselves. The United States, Canada, Argentina, and Russia can furnish wheat and meat for most of the world. Australia supplies much of the wool used in European factories, and has become the greatest wool-growing country in the world. Brazil, Africa, India, China, the Malay Peninsula, and the East Indies have sent millions of dollars' worth of coffee, rubber, and tea yearly to the United States and to Europe.

Improved means of transportation also encouraged peoples from the crowded countries of Europe to pour out into the New World to find homes and start life over again. By the middle of the nineteenth century the United States was receiving hundreds of thousands of immigrants a year. At first they came especially from Ireland, where distress from the potato famine of 1846 and 1847 was particularly keen, and from Germany, where the failure of the revolutionary movements of 1848 and 1849 produced the greatest discouragement. The Irish in many cases settled in the eastern cities of the United States. The German immigrants also, in part, stayed in the cities, but in the Middle West rather than along the Atlantic coast. Many of them took up farms. A little later many thousands of immigrants from Denmark, Norway, and Sweden crossed the Atlantic, to settle mainly in the northern sections of the Middle West, where climate and some other conditions were most like their old homes.

Toward the end of the nineteenth century another vast tide of migration poured out of Europe, this time from the South and East. Italy, Austria, Hungary, Poland, and Russia sent hundreds of thousands of discontented people to the New World. Though in 1850 a dollar a day was fair pay for an American laborer, one could hope to rise to a higher place in a new country than in an old one where society was more or less hardened into fixed classes. Sometimes, especially from Italy and Germany, young men left home in order to escape compulsory service in the army. Sometimes religious persecutions were responsible, notably in the case of Jewish people from Russia. All such movements as these helped to change the makeup of the people of the United States and to contribute many new elements to the life of that country.

All the emigrants from Europe did not go to the United States, however. Canada and Australia got some of them, though these were more likely to have gone from the British Isles than from other countries. Argentina, Uruguay, and Brazil not only received but invited settlers. Some of the very best of the emigrants from Italy went to Argentina and soon gained a notable place in the business and political life of that country. Many Germans moved to southern Brazil.

Immigration took on such vast proportions that the time came, especially after World War I, when the United States and Canada concluded that they would no longer hold the door wide open. They meant to exclude all Mongolian laborers and any large number of immigrants from southern and eastern Europe. Australia also was determined to keep itself "a white man's country" — and was particular about its white men, besides.

As Europeans made their influence more and more widely felt in every part of the world, so European languages became constantly more familiar everywhere. For a long time French was distinctly the language of diplomacy. Treaties made between governments whose people spoke different languages would be drawn up in French as well as in the languages of the countries that were concerned. A little later English came to have almost as extended a recognition and, of all the European languages, is now spoken by more people than any other. If a tourist knows

English and French, he will have little trouble getting along in any part of the world except the most primitive.

All sorts of international co-operation were immensely encouraged by the new conveniences. Societies for all kinds of purposes were brought into being. Scientific programs, educational societies, charitable organizations, religious societies, organizations to relieve distress, such as the Red Cross Society, include members from dozens of nations and hold meetings sometimes in one country and sometimes in another. There is plenty of work for them, for international good will has not yet overcome all the prejudice and ill-feeling handed down from the past.

Do you think the vast new farming regions of the United States, Canada, and Argentina would have been opened up if the Industrial Revolution had not taken place? Mention likenesses and differences in the migrations from Europe in the seventeenth century and the nineteenth or twentieth. Is there any reason why Italians might fit with notable success into the social and business life of South American countries? Why do you suppose artificial languages have never made much headway? Which language do you suppose would be hardest to learn for one who knew only his native tongue — English, French, German, Italian, or Russian? What good could an international society accomplish in the field of science, medicine, or education?

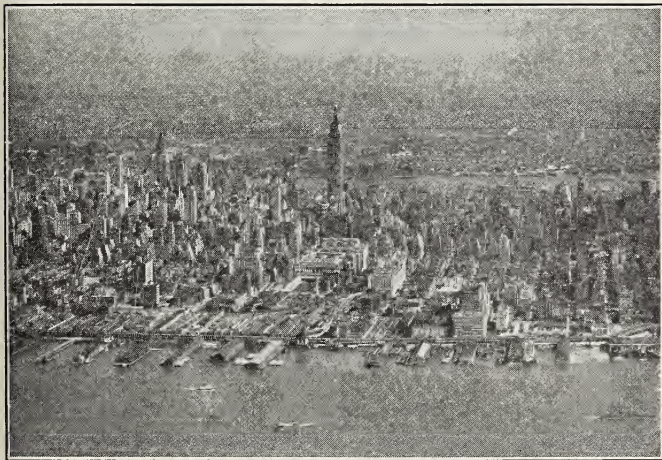
309. Effects of the Industrial Revolution on Social Life. — You cannot separate industrial life from social life. So it was inevitable that, as the Industrial Revolution reached farther and farther, there would be marked changes in people's lives.

Particularly we may mention the rise of great cities. Not only did the workers have to live in the communities where they earned their bread and butter, but hundreds and thousands of other people, such as tradesmen of all kinds, professional people, and men of finance, came there to live with them and supply their needs. All these people and their families made little villages grow into big mill towns and small cities into great industrial centers. Industry has done this all over the world.

When the first factories were rising, towns grew up around them like mushrooms. There were no electric cars or cheap autos; and if there had been any, the wages that the workers were receiving would not have permitted them to use these facilities very much. So workers had to crowd close around the factories,

and terrible slum districts formed, making plenty of work for social reformers who believe that every man and woman has a right to a clean and decent home life.

The factory system brought immense wealth to some people, but to altogether too few. That was its worst curse, for a worker could tolerate even long hours and a dirty shop if he got wages enough to keep his family in comfort. But the wealth produced



A MODERN METROPOLIS

Guess what city this is. What do you suppose this region looked like 200 years ago, or even 100? How has life changed for people who live in this neighborhood?

by the machines was oh, so unevenly distributed! There had been rich and poor before, but now the distinction was greater than ever.

New opportunities, however, came even to many of the poor people. Products of the factories were made in such numbers and with so little labor that their cost dropped. The poor working man could buy a greater variety of clothes and food and other things if he had sense enough to handle his wages carefully. The poor had Sunday "off" and an occasional other holiday; yet to them, leisure and recreation too often were things that were linked with one's idea of a rich man.

But times have changed. Eight hours is the longest working day unions will consider, except at overtime rates. Some talk of a six-hour day or thirty-hour week, not only as a means of sharing work in times of depression, but because they say if business were properly arranged, the work of the world could be done on such a schedule. But what would one do with all this extra time? Society has not yet discovered the right answer to that question.

Are people happy when they are unemployed? Do you see any problems in your own community today similar to those that arose in the factory cities of the early nineteenth century? Is there any danger that cities will become too big? If the Industrial Revolution was to succeed, was it necessary that there should be rich men? Just how do you feel toward the typical rich man of your community? Do people today think too much about what they call a good time?

310. Better Care for the Downtrodden. — Human beings have surely become on the whole more sympathetic toward distress. Serfdom has gone — at least in name, and almost completely in fact. Slavery has gone, except in a few parts of Africa. In 1808 both Great Britain and the United States put an end to the importation of slaves in their dominions. In 1833, largely as a result of the labors of William Wilberforce, Parliament voted £20,000,000 to pay the slave-owners in British colonies and required them to set their slaves free. Thirty years, you see, before Lincoln's Emancipation Proclamation, slavery under the British flag was wiped out.

The wealthy have always been expected to do something to relieve the poor, and if they do not do it, humane governments try to help in some way. Churches and synagogues also have tried to take care of the needy among their members. Always some are mean enough to take advantage of the kindness of their fellowmen and try to get their living without working. England in the days of Queen Elizabeth and even earlier, for example, had its troubles with "sturdy beggars" — men who were perfectly able to work but preferred to go from place to place begging food and clothes.

Among the earliest means of preventing begging and relieving poverty was the establishment of poorhouses. A person who could not or would not work could be forced to live in one of these places,

where he could be kept alive at the least possible expense to the community. But better than forcing people to live in even the most wisely managed poorhouse is carrying cheer and comfort into the homes of the poor. Settlement houses may bring opportunities for recreation and education and helpful social life into needy sections of a city. Work such as that of Canon Barnett and Arnold Toynbee in London and of Jane Addams at Hull House in Chicago is known the world over. The Salvation Army, which combines both religious and social interests, was founded by William Booth, who was stirred to action by conditions that he saw in the slums of London.

Intelligent people now realize more keenly than ever before that preventing poverty is far more desirable than letting it come and then trying to relieve it. Establishing higher wage standards; providing parks, playgrounds, and other public means for recreation; furnishing education at public expense; building apartments or attractive small houses to be rented by a public "housing authority" at prices which the poor can pay — these are some of the means by which communities have tried to make life comfortable for those who can never hope to be rich.

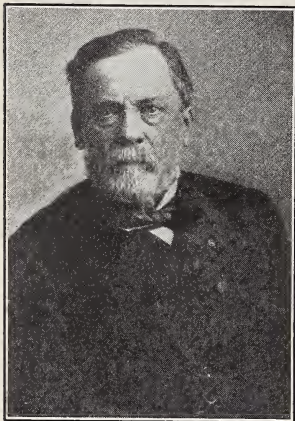
Show how each of these measures might help to prevent poverty.

Much remains to be done. For some people it is doubtful whether much can be done, for shiftlessness is shiftlessness, whether in the fourteenth century or the twentieth. Social insurance programs are becoming increasingly common, to provide relief or justice, whichever you care to consider it. In depression periods governments may undertake to supply jobs through constructing public works which they would not ordinarily have undertaken at that time.

Can laws prevent poverty? Which people care most about recreation and amusement — primitive people or those who have made considerable advancement in methods of living? Why? What is the responsibility of a community toward persons who can work but will not? In primitive times or modern days would you be likely to find the larger percentage of people out of work?

311. Progress in Health and Sanitation. — Today we have learned so much about the cause and cure of many diseases that often it is our own fault if we do not keep ourselves healthy. Take,

for example, such terrible pestilences as smallpox and yellow fever. They used to come and take away thousands. Now they have almost entirely disappeared. Even in tropical countries, where yellow fever has always been most common, it is



LOUIS PASTEUR

"illustre par sa decouverte de la prophylaxie de la rage et ses travaux sur les maladies contagieuses." Thus the French maker of this photograph described his subject.

His discoveries and those of the German Robert Koch (kōk) are based largely on the *germ theory* of disease. If we can identify, or "isolate," the germ that causes a particular disease, then we can experiment and find out the best way to control its ravages. Perhaps we can destroy the dangerous germ, as when we "pasteurize" milk. Sometimes, as in the case of vaccination, producing just a little of the disease which we want to prevent makes a person "immune" to the disease itself.

As a result of these discoveries, medical science now tries as hard to prevent people from being sick as to help them get well after sickness has come. The League of Nations began international co-operation for the control of disease. Now the World Health Organization is an agency of the United Nations. The death rate

possible to bring about conditions as healthful as anywhere in the world. If you want proof of this fact, look at the Panama Canal Zone.

An English physician, Edward Jenner, in 1796 discovered that vaccination is a means of removing or reducing the danger from smallpox. About 1900 Walter Reed in Cuba found that yellow fever was spread by a certain kind of mosquito. Typhoid fever, which has been the curse of many communities, comes mostly from impure water. Purify a community's water supply, and typhoid becomes exceedingly rare.

A famous name in the field of scientific medicine is that of Louis Pasteur (pas ter') of France. His

in almost all civilized countries has been cut 25 to 35 per cent, and in western Europe and the United States the average length of life increased by twenty years or more.

Yet accidents and sickness still occur which call for the services of a surgeon. On the tombstone of Dr. William T. G. Morton of Massachusetts appear the words, "Once surgery was agony; now science has conquered pain." Dr. Morton, Dr. Crawford W. Long of Georgia, and Dr. Charles G. Jackson of Massachusetts were experimenting in the 1840's

with ether and gas to make a patient unconscious while an operation was being performed. Now any serious surgical operation employs some kind of anaesthetic. The use of antiseptics and the whole emphasis on cleanliness in medicine and surgery were greatly encouraged through the discoveries of the Englishman Joseph Lister.

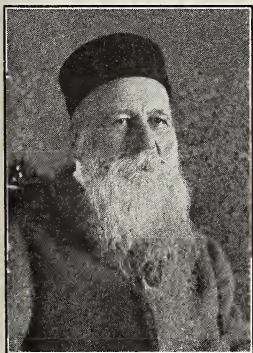
In this connection the discovery of the so-called X-ray is extremely valuable. A German scientist, Wilhelm Röntgen (rent'gen), discovered that under certain conditions light rays could be produced which would shine through human flesh. Surgeons now may know the conditions that they have to work with rather than merely guess about them before an operation is performed.

Look up such names as Metch'nikoff of Russia and Curie, husband and wife, French and Polish, and see what their contributions are to science and health.



AN X-RAY OF A GIRL'S FOOT

What does it show and what does it not show? How do you suppose this would look if the heel of the shoe was the kind girls sometimes display?



HENRI DUNANT

Some have called this Swiss gentleman the first "man in white." When he founded the International Red Cross in 1864 he was much younger than he looks in this picture.

Why do you suppose all these valuable discoveries such as the germ theory, the benefits of anti-toxins, and the like were not made sooner? Do doctors ever change their minds about the proper way to treat diseases?

All civilized governments now consider it one of their first duties to promote the health of their people. A community may furnish a pure water supply or inspect water or milk from private



© Harris and Ewing

CLARA BARTON

President of the American Red Cross for many years. It was seventeen years from the time when the Red Cross Society was organized in Europe before the United States Congress could be induced to take a chance on chartering the American society of this kind.

sources and forbid the use of that which is unhealthful. It may set up standards of quality for food products in general. Cities are trying to do away with slums, and to prevent by proper housing laws the development of conditions dangerous to health and safety. Quarantine laws restrain the spread of contagious diseases. Hospitals and special homes for the consumptive or the epileptic are provided by public or private support. Leprosy still claims a few victims, but they are cared for in "colonies" where self-sacrificing physicians or nurses look after them. No longer do we see them sitting near the gates of a city crying "Unclean," so that people will keep away from them, but hoping that somebody will throw them a crust of bread or a coin.

Of all international agencies to relieve human distress, most famous is the Red Cross Society. It was founded by

Henri (ŏn-rĭ) Dunant (du nän), a Swiss gentleman whose sympathies were deeply stirred by the suffering he saw on the battlefield in Italy in 1859 and 1860. Reversing the colors of the flag of Switzerland, the society, which was organized at Geneva in 1864, adopted the red cross on a white background as its symbol. The American Red Cross, of which Clara Barton was long president, was established in 1881.

Modern scientific care has also blessed those who never had or have lost some of the ordinary faculties. The blind, the deaf,

and the dumb have all been helped through the establishment of special institutions or by private generosity. When a girl who, at one time, could neither see, hear, nor speak can get a diploma from Radcliffe College and become an author of note, as did Helen Keller, there would seem to be no limit to what can be done for the unfortunate if they have normal minds.

But what can we do for those who are either born short mentally or who lose command of their mental powers? Once such people were treated hardly as well as animals. They might be put into strait jackets or chained to prison walls, better dead than living. The nineteenth century saw a great change in their treatment. Dorothea Dix gave years of her life to an effort to obtain more humane treatment for the insane. For them and for the feeble-minded all civilized countries



New York Times Studios

FAMOUS THOUGH HANDICAPPED

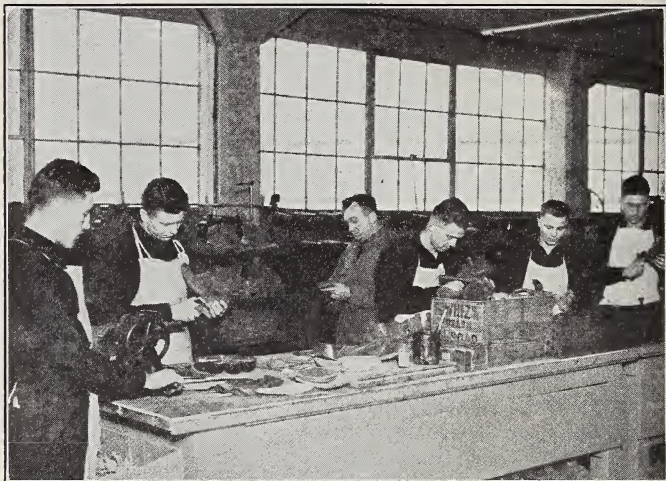
Nothing could prevent Helen Keller from becoming one of the most cultured women of our time. She can read with her hands better than most people do with their eyes

now have special institutions so they may help to support themselves; and in some cases they are restored to mental health. Such institutions, as well as hospitals for the sick and crippled, expect those who can afford to do so to pay for the services they receive; but there is nothing wrong in that.

312. Dealing with Crime and Vice. — What to do with those who break laws or insist upon practices that harm the community is another problem as old as society itself. Once the main thought in this matter was that of *vengeance* — the criminal harmed society; society should get back at him. You remember the old Hebrew code declared, "An eye for an eye, a tooth for a tooth, a life for a life." Next, perhaps, came the motive of *punishment*. A

criminal must be made to suffer for the act that he had committed so that he and others would hesitate before committing that act again. Still another viewpoint was that society should give itself *protection* from a criminal by putting him away where he could do no more harm to others.

Medieval prisons — in fact many jails far into the nineteenth century — were simply dungeons — dirty, insanitary places where



KEEPING CONVICTS BUSY

Wide World

This is the shoe shop in the federal prison on Alcatraz Island in San Francisco Bay. Better to give convicts something to do than to keep them sulking in idleness!

people were kept either until they were thought to have suffered enough or until they died. All sorts of people were thrown into the same kind of place, whether they had committed murder or stolen a loaf of bread. There was a time when people could be put to death for either of those offenses.

Reform in the administration of prisons began in the later eighteenth century. The Englishman John Howard tried to stir up sentiment against treating all prisoners alike. He thought

they should be treated like human beings instead of beasts. A Quaker, Elizabeth Fry, also helped people to think more clearly on this matter.

Tremendous change has come since the days of John Howard. The cardinal motive now is *reformation* of the criminal. Can he occupy his time profitably in prison? Can he be trained to be an honest, useful citizen after he gets out? Some think we try too hard these days to make jails pleasant. But certainly the old methods too often hardened a person so that he had no desire to do better, or, by throwing him in contact with other criminals, taught him deviltry that he didn't already know.

There has been much argument over the death penalty. In almost every country it has been inflicted for a great variety of crimes, but now it is usually reserved for such offenses as murder and treason. No nation has completely abolished it, though in some states of the American Union it is not permitted. Once hanging or shooting were the only methods used, and sometimes hangings were public affairs. Now executions are not open to the public, and methods nearly painless are often used, such as the electric chair or deadly gas.

The practice, once common, of putting people in jail who could not pay their debts has been abandoned. Can you tell why?

Is it possible to be too lenient in dealing with criminals? Should a person who repeatedly breaks laws be allowed to live outside of prison?

Drunkenness as a form of human indulgence is very, very old, and much crime has occurred when men were under the influence of liquor. For this reason, as well as to promote the health of the people, many countries have undertaken to limit or even prohibit the sale of "strong drink." Peoples living in northern climates seem to find this problem most serious, perhaps because there the temptation to use very strong liquor is greatest.

In the twentieth century Finland, most of Canada, and the United States undertook by changes in their laws or constitutions to prohibit the sale of intoxicating liquor. The enforcement of prohibition proved difficult, however, in all these countries. The Canadian provinces were the first to give it up, and Finland followed. The United States repealed the prohibition amendment in its Constitution in 1933.

Most countries have contented themselves with lessening the opportunity to obtain liquor by having saloons or bars closed within definite hours and on certain days. Sweden, several Canadian provinces, and some of the United States keep the sale of liquor in the hands of the government. Sometimes a limit is placed upon the amount of liquor that may be sold to any person. No country or state that cares for its people's interests will permit liquor to be sold by anybody and everybody without restraint.

Another dangerous habit widely recognized by governments is the use of harmful drugs. Not only millions of Chinese became addicts to the opium habit, but thousands in so-called progressive countries allowed themselves to get under the control of narcotics. A stain on England's record in the nineteenth century is the Opium War with China in 1839-1842, mainly for the purpose of compelling the Chinese to accept opium produced under the direction of English business men in India. Not until after the League of Nations was formed was co-operation among the governments of the world really made possible in regard to the control of the production and sale of narcotic drugs.

Why do people allow themselves to acquire such bad habits as the use of liquors and drugs when they must know the probable results? Why in the United States has there been less opposition to the laws against narcotics than to the laws against intoxicating liquor? What means do you consider best to control the production of harmful drugs?

313. Gains for Women and Children. — Many times in history when people have talked about freedom they had men chiefly in mind. Hardly anywhere in ancient or medieval times were women considered on the same plane with men politically, socially, or even educationally. As for children, they were entirely in the power of the parents, especially of the father. You remember that a Roman *pater* might even put his children to death.

The same humane sentiments that brought about the release of slaves and serfs from bondage contributed a little toward increasing the rights of women and children. The Christian religion did something to improve the standing of women, partly through the reverence shown for Mary, the mother of Jesus; yet places of leadership in the Church were almost entirely reserved for men. Chivalry made a great show of respect for women and the under-

privileged, but in practice it was mostly people of noble rank that benefited from it.

The nineteenth and twentieth centuries have witnessed the greatest advance in the position of women and children. The Industrial Revolution with its many factory jobs gave new opportunities for work for women and children as well as for men. At first these opportunities brought nothing much but wearisome toil and low wages; yet they at least made these workers partly self-supporting. The English factory laws, imitated later elsewhere, were more strict in shortening the hours of labor for women and children than for men, partly because of a certain kind of chivalry and partly because people realized the harmful effects upon society later on if children and women were allowed to ruin their health by hard labor. As more and more women earned their living outside their home, they naturally began to feel they should have the right to own property; so little by little they have been acquiring that right. There are plenty of places yet, however, where women's rights — especially married women's — in regard to property are much less extensive than those of men.

For centuries it was a common notion that the only education most girls needed was to learn to do the things required in the home. When schools were organized, they were chiefly for boys; and if women learned to read and write, they often had to be taught by members of their own family. Now in many countries not only the three R's but high school and even college education are as readily available for girls as they are for boys. In some of the older nations, however, university training for women is still reserved for a very limited number.

If women's chief interest was in their home, why should they bother about government? So seems to have been the reasoning of most people for a long time. For many years few women seemed to care whether they could vote or not; but as women more and more went out into the professional and business world and rendered service equally capable with that of men, the reasons for denying them the ballot became fewer and fewer.

In the early part of the twentieth century the Scandinavian countries gave women the right to vote on the same terms as men. World War I extended woman suffrage enormously. England

gave the ballot to all women over thirty in 1918, and later, by the so-called Flapper Vote Bill, to all over twenty-one (1928). The majority of the great British dominions have equal suffrage for men and women. Germany, Austria, Czechoslovakia (check o-slo vä'kia), Poland, Russia, and the Netherlands all gave the ballot to women during the years immediately following the first World War. The United States Constitution was amended in 1920 to make woman suffrage a national requirement, instead of leaving it to the states, as had been the case before that date.

In progressive countries the law now gives more consideration to children than it once did. It assumes that a child has a right to be educated, and even compels him to be exposed to education if he does not want to be. It imposes limits on the kinds of employment in which children may engage and the hours or conditions under which they may work. If parents abuse a child, he may even be taken away from his home and put into some other home or a school where he at least will be free from the wrong kind of parental authority. Special attention is also given to children who break the law. Special courts or judges try to deal with them in such a way as to encourage them to do right, and to keep them from contact with hardened criminals.

In many churches women seem to be somewhat more active than men, taken as a whole. Is this due to a recognition of the uplift that the Church has brought to women or to some other reason? Do women and girls today take as much interest in government and public affairs as men? If not, do they deserve the right to vote? Should a child be pleased that his government thinks enough of him to make him go to school?

314. New Theories and Knowledge about the World. — Science is not a thing of our times only, for surely we could not deny Copernicus and Galileo or even Ptolemy and Aristotle a place in the list of scientists. But science has made greater strides in the last hundred years than in all the earlier centuries put together. The stars, the winds and waters, the force of electricity, light, and the growth of plants and animals are a few of the many items about which men have learned much and are still learning.

Scientists have presented strikingly new ideas about the development of man and the globe on which he lives. In 1833 an English scientist, Sir Charles Lyell, published his *Principles of Geology*,

in which he set forth the opinion that the earth is infinitely older than most people had believed. If it always took as long as it now takes for winds, water, freezing and thawing, and other changes, to alter the face of the earth, the earth may be millions instead of thousands of years old. Then in 1859 another Englishman, Charles Darwin, came along with his *Origin of Species*. He declared that instead of animals and plants having always had the same form in which we see them, they have developed out of simpler forms through a process which we usually refer to as *evolution*. Even human beings, he thought, have changed greatly in their physical appearance and ability to adapt themselves to their surroundings, though it is not accurate to quote him as claiming that man is descended from a monkey.

Such ideas as those of Lyell and Darwin aroused bitter criticism, especially from those who felt that the book of Genesis must be interpreted literally. Many deeply religious people, however, see no reason for thinking of the Bible and science as in conflict. Science does not deny that God exists, and even such revolutionary views as Darwin's deal with the *way men and things have changed* rather than with great principles of life and conduct.

Astronomers have found out more and more about the place of the earth in the universe and the movements of the heavenly bodies. Students of chemistry and physics are discovering not only new elements out of which the world is made but new facts about the motion that goes on within the minute units that make up material things.

The wonderful outburst of discovery which characterized the fifteenth, sixteenth, and early seventeenth centuries opened up so much of the world that people were kept busy getting acquainted with the newly discovered regions. Central Asia, central South America, most of Africa, some of the islands of the Pacific, and the frozen regions around the Poles were for many years mysteries to the rest of the world. In the latter part of the eighteenth century Captain James Cook of England made some notable voyages of discovery in the Pacific Ocean. In 1778 he found the Hawaiian Islands and named them after his patron Lord Sandwich, but met his death there. On that same voyage, which started in 1776, he coasted along the shore of Oregon, Washington,

and Alaska. Except in the regions toward the Poles, not much in the way of newly discovered land has been added to the map of the world since the time of Captain Cook.

Explorers and scientists have now traversed the lands of western China and Mongolia, where they have looked for traces of men who were there before civilized times, and have inspected the "forbidden cities" of Tibet. Alexander von Humboldt at the



© Byrd Antarctic Expedition II; from *Wide World Photos*

POLAR EXPLORATIONS IN 1934

Admiral Byrd is talking to two of his officers as the dog sleds arrive with radio equipment at Little America in the Antarctic regions.

beginning of the nineteenth century was exploring South America, but he left so much of it unknown to outsiders that over 100 years later Theodore Roosevelt added to his fame by visiting the so-called "River of Doubt." Even the heart of Africa has now been opened up.

The icy regions around the North Pole and South Pole have challenged the imagination and heroism of many an explorer. In 1853 the Englishman McClure succeeded in making a "north-west passage" around North America to Asia which Europeans had been looking for ever since the sixteenth century, only to learn that it was practically useless. Expedition after expedition got nearer and nearer the North Pole until in 1909 the American

Robert E. Peary succeeded in reaching its vicinity. He found nothing there but a vast, icy sea of no apparent value to anybody. The South Pole was reached by the Norwegian Amundsen (ä'mundsen) in December, 1911, and by the Englishman Scott one month later, but the English party did not live to reach civilization again. The American Richard E. Byrd won the unique distinction of flying over the North Pole in 1926 and over the South Pole in 1929. Now members of the air force fly over the North Pole just for practice.

What scientific facts or theories have you read about lately which probably would not have been taught 100 years ago? Do great changes in the surface of the earth take place in a short time today? Would you enjoy taking part in an exploring expedition into a region never before visited by civilized people? How do the airplane and the radio help explorers of today?

315. Advances in Education. — In most countries aristocrats have not wanted the masses to become intelligent; neither have kings, if such a situation would put their thrones in danger. Not until the nineteenth century did public schools, in the American sense of the term, become common. Now even dictators want people to be able to read.

In Europe the French Revolution set in motion strong trends toward public education. Neither the Revolutionists nor Napoleon succeeded in establishing a thorough system, but as the nineteenth century went on, France took up the project and ultimately developed one covering the whole way from elementary schools to the university. Prussia while under the heel of Napoleon concluded that education would help her people to become a strong nation. So a plan of education was started which provided thorough training in the elementary grades. By the end of the nineteenth century the German educational system was thoroughly developed, and so organized as to make distinct differences between the courses taken by the children of the masses and those who would have the opportunity to go on to the universities.

In England the work of education was left mainly under the direction of the established church until 1870. Then the Education Act of that year established a national system of elementary education. England had its famous boys' schools, such as Rugby

and E'ton, with a long and proud record ; but only in the twentieth century did the government support what in the United States would be called public high schools. Northern and western Europe, including the Scandinavian countries, Germany, the Netherlands, and the British Isles have about the best records of any nation in regard to the ability of their people to read and



IN THE DINING ROOM AT ETON

Wide World Photos

This picture gives you some idea of the dress and surroundings of the boys at this famous English school. Founded in 1440, it has trained many of England's statesmen and soldiers, and numbers an enrollment of about 1200.

write. Even Japan taught a very large proportion of its people to read and write. Until the depression of the 1930's, civilized governments were steadily increasing the money they spent on education. As the hours of labor for factory workers have been coming down, these people have demanded for themselves and for their children free schools and a preparation for the enjoyment of culture and leisure time such as once would never have been imagined. High school education has become a natural stage in the life of the majority of boys and girls in the United States.

Southern and eastern Europe were the most backward parts of the continent for many years, but after World War I tremendous changes took place in many countries. Russia under its revolutionary leaders tackled the job of teaching everybody to read and write and to absorb the ideas about government and business which these leaders advocated. Italy and Spain, which had exceedingly bad records, also made great progress and transferred most of the responsibility for the administration of schools from the church to the government. Turkey, too, accomplished wonders.

The United States, unlike European countries, does not put education under the direction of the national government, but it leaves its control with the states. Public schools began in colonial times, first of all in Massachusetts. The educational progress of the country has varied widely in different sections. Several of the states offer free instruction all the way through from the kindergarten to the university. In the United States coeducation has been common — the regular practice everywhere in elementary schools and now in most of the high schools as well. In Europe separate schools are usually maintained for boys and for girls. Girls also have all the opportunities they need for college and university education in the United States.

Why does the United States leave education to be controlled by the states while in most other countries it is a national matter? Do you see any advantage in either arrangement? Is the responsibility of governments for education rightfully greater now than a century ago?

Just as we have recognized such great teachers as Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle who helped to advance men's moral and intellectual ideals, so we should honor later men who, through their contributions to education, have affected the lives of millions of people as truly as if they had invented a new machine or led an army to victory.

Among such men we may mention first John Amos Comenius (1592-1670). More accurately we should call him Johann (yō'han) Komen'ski, for he was born in Czechoslovakia and worked out many of his ideas in Poland. He believed that education should be made a pleasant process rather than be "forced in" or "beat in" to one's mind. He was the first textbook writer to

use pictures to make his book more lifelike and interesting. All people, men and women alike, regardless of rank or ability, he declared, were entitled to such education as they were able to

absorb. He proposed divisions in the organization of schools which correspond in a general way to our kindergarten, elementary, secondary, and college organizations.

The English philosopher John Locke thought that the development of a healthy body and the learning of a trade were important if one was to be properly educated, and was much ahead of his time in asserting that "there are possibly scarce two children who can be conducted by exactly the same method." The French philosopher Rousseau also had definite views on education. He said that we ought not to demand too much of children, and should teach them what was really of use to them and let them do more for themselves, rather than merely obey the instructions of those in authority.

Very famous in the list of great educators was John Pestalozzi (pes ta lot'si) (1746-

1827), born in Zurich, Switzerland. He brought together a number of destitute children and tried out on them some of his educational principles. Later he set down these ideas in two novels, *Leonard and Gertrude* and *How Gertrude Teaches Her Children*. He believed that everyone should be trained to fill happily the place for which he is fitted in life. Education, as



A PAGE FROM AN ENGLISH REPRODUCTION OF COMENIUS' BOOK, "ORBIS PICTUS"

Comenius wanted to make study interesting, and so put into his study book pictures of things whose names he wished students to learn. On this page you see both the English and the Latin names of various living things.

he saw it, was not merely learning the three R's. One must "be something." Education should help the natural talents of the child to develop in the most effective way.

Johann Friedrich Herbart (1776-1841), a German philosopher, stressed the importance of developing a pupil's interest. He declared that a person must not merely learn facts, but develop such an activity of mind that he would reach out for more and become a many-sided thinker. He believed that five steps should be pursued in presenting a topic: "preparation, presentation, association, generalization, application." See if you can figure out what these terms mean, and observe whether your teachers make use of them.

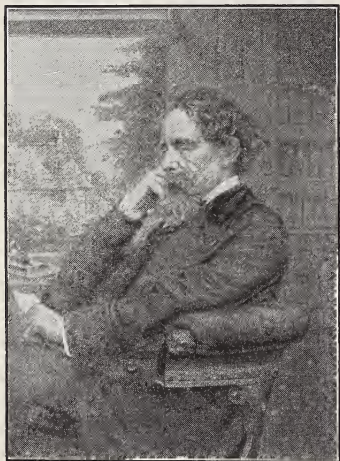
The great contribution of the German Friedrich Froebel (frē'bel) (1782-1852) was the kindergarten. He declared that the education of the child should begin with its birth and should include all three sides of its nature: mental, spiritual, and physical. His ideas met much opposition, and kindergartens were even prohibited in Prussia. Now most of the good-sized school systems have their kindergartens, and we are even talking about doing something through our schools for those of "pre-school age" — those too young for the kindergarten.

The Englishman Herbert Spencer (1820-1903), who was a philosopher and writer rather than a teacher, was much concerned about determining "what knowledge is of most worth." We should give special attention in education, he thought, to the most important things in life, rather than spend time on fields of study which are not closely related to human welfare.

Today a well-planned school tries to provide for its pupils such work as will enable them to be of the greatest service. Such countries as Denmark make special provisions for older people to continue their education. Education includes the development of the hand as well as the brain. Manual training had its beginning in Sweden, and in most countries provisions are now made for direct preparation for trades or other occupations as well as for the literary side of one's interests. The best schools recognize such subjects as music and art as elements in a well-rounded education along with the subjects which for centuries have had a place in the course of study.

Since we could not begin to mention all those who have contributed new ideas or methods in the field of education in recent years, we will take one man's name as typical of the new thinking. John Dewey (1859-) gave great emphasis to activity as a means of education. We must not merely learn things but do them. True education is a "constant reorganizing or reconstructing of experience."

Worthwhile education makes one desire to keep on growing and gives him the means of developing tastes and talents. "Education is life," said Dewey. "Education is a process of living, and not a preparation for future living."



CHARLES DICKENS

One of the keenest of all writers about English life and manners. Though he described his visit to the United States without offering many compliments, his writings have always been popular with Americans.

Talk with your parents or other older friends and find out how differently your school life is carried on from theirs. What subjects have come into the course of study since they were in school? What different methods of study and teaching are used? What activities have a part in school life which were not included in their school experiences? What arguments might be offered on both sides when it is proposed to introduce into a school system which does not have them, such subjects as shopwork and domestic science?

316. Modern Literature and Drama.—Old King Solomon said, "Of making many books there is no end." But what did he know about it as compared with the thousands of volumes which have come from our printing presses every year since modern industrial and scientific development got under way? Today one can find something to read on any subject he can think of, if he is in touch with an up-to-date library. Libraries, museums, university extension courses, and magazines and newspapers are,

indeed, an important part of a community's educational equipment.

Some literature, of course, is lasting because of the topics with which it deals rather than because of its literary merit. That is true of such writers as Lyell and Darwin, whom we mentioned a little while ago. We might say the same of the English philosopher Herbert Spencer and the German Immanuel Kant (1724-1804).

Poets and novelists are much more numerous than composers of any other kind of modern literature. The early years of the nineteenth century produced in the British Isles an exceptional number of poets. Burns, Wordsworth, Byron, Keats, and Shelley are among the best known of all English poets. Queen Victoria's period also produced great literary characters. Browning, Tennyson, and Kipling rank high in any list of poetical achievement. Sir Walter Scott wrote some clever poetry, but he is perhaps most famous for his group of novels, of which you probably already know *Ivanhoe*. After his time, through the middle of the nineteenth century, appeared such novelists as Thackeray, Dickens, and George Eliot (whose real name was Mary Ann Evans). Dickens' novels brought to light many of the social conditions in England that needed correction. Read *David Copperfield*, *Oliver Twist*, and *Nicholas Nickleby* if you want to learn some of the phases of English life in Dickens' time that came close to the boys and girls of those days.

The two greatest names in nineteenth-century French literature are probably Victor Hugo and Alexander Dumas (du mǎ'). Hugo's *Les Misérables* (lay mē zā rä'bl') is one of the world's greatest literary classics. Dumas' writings picture vividly French life in the seventeenth century. De Maupassant (mō pass ä'n') and



VICTOR HUGO

A French author who has made history live by writing novels of surpassing interest and vividness.

Balzac (bäl zāk') also rank high. Germany's greatest early nineteenth-century authors were poets and dramatists. Goethe's *Faust* is considered one of the great dramas of all times, and



TWO FAMOUS GERMAN AUTHORS

This statue at Weimar commemorates Goethe and Schiller, the foremost German poets and playwrights of the nineteenth century.

Schiller (shiller) ranks next to him among literary names of that period. Russia's greatest author is Count Tolstoy. The fact that he dealt with social conditions attracted attention to his writings which they might not have received solely for literary reasons.

In the United States literature was a little slow in getting started, because the people were so busy conquering the wilderness and building up trade and industry. But by the middle of the nineteenth century, Europe as well as America knew of Emerson, poet and philosopher, Longfellow, Hawthorne, Poe, Irving, Lowell, and Cooper. Great historians such as Prescott,

Motley, Parkman, and Bancroft had already written much, some of it fully worthy to rank with the works of England's Macaulay, Lecky, and Carlyle.

Perhaps you have noticed that we have mentioned no writers who are still living. From the great mass of poets, historians, novelists, philosophers, and scientists of today some names will doubtless stand out when the years have had the opportunity to pass judgment on them. Five-cent weeklies and monthly magazines as well as books permit the work of thousands of authors from every civilized land to get into print. The civilized world has become a reading world, whether or not it reads on the whole more intelligently than formerly.

Now let us turn to the drama. Nobody in any land has come

forward as a real successor to Shakespeare, the greatest of all dramatists. Today he is studied in literature classes more often than his works are played on the stage. For many years the stage was not well thought of in communities where religious interests were strong — partly because of the poor character of many actors and actresses and partly because few plays of real quality were produced. Actors like David Garrick of England and Joseph Jefferson and E. H. Sothorn of the United States, however, gave character and skill to the stage in England and the United States. Toward the end of the nineteenth century the theater again gained some popularity as the Church ceased to be as hostile toward it as it once had been.

After the twentieth century was under way, the “legitimate” theater lost much of its following to the moving-picture — they call it in England the cinema — which has now become the great means of amusement for people the world over. Pictures, at first silent but later accompanied by words and music, can be shown where great actors and actresses never could come — and at lower prices. They can represent scenes and actions on a vast scale such as never could find a place on a stage. Every day millions of people the world over go to moving-picture houses, and the production of picture plays has become one of the big industries of the world. The possibilities of films in educating people are almost limitless, but films which deal with crime or immorality or give a false or half-true picture of the life of a people may do infinite damage.

With what writers are you familiar whose names we have not mentioned in this section? How many of such writers do you think will have a permanent place in literature? Are the stories and other articles in such publications as the *Saturday Evening Post* comparable from the literary standpoint with the works of the authors you study in your literature courses? If you have read any books translated from foreign languages, did you feel any difference between them and works written originally in English? Does a moving picture seem as real to you as a play presented by living actors? Has anything except a cheaper price caused so many people to go to the movies instead of regular theaters for amusement?

317. Music in Modern Times. — Music even more than literature may be a bond of union among all nations. Music has been

called the "universal language," for everyone, regardless of his speech, may understand music. Music may express almost any emotion or taste that human beings can feel.

While England was making such headway in its new movement in industry, Germany was producing the greatest masters of music that perhaps the world ever saw. One of them was Johann Sebastian Bach (1685-1750), born near the old castle of Wartburg, where Martin Luther had written most of his hymns. With the violin and the organ and an instrument called the clavichord (an



HANDEL

ancestor of our piano), he may be considered to have laid the foundation of modern classical music. He not only was a wonderful composer, but improved the instruments he used and helped others to express more successfully their thoughts through music.

Living at almost exactly the same time (1685-1759) was another of the world's greatest musicians, George Frederick Handel, born in Saxony. He spent some of his days in Italy, and the latter part of his life in England. When he died, the English buried him in Westminster Abbey with their other heroes. His

great success was in the production of oratorios. Nothing finer in that line than Handel's *Messiah* has ever inspired music lovers.

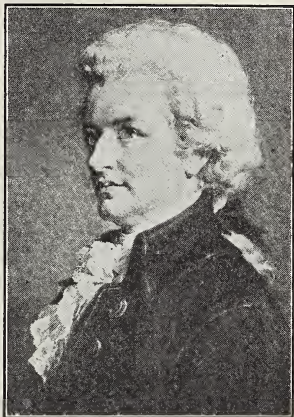
Greatest of all, some would say, and on a level with Shakespeare in literature, was Ludwig van Beethoven (1770-1827). Though born in the German city of Bonn, after he grew to young manhood he went to Vienna, where he studied for a time with Austria's first famous musician, Haydn. The great Mozart also was there and himself recognized Beethoven's genius. Beethoven's "symphonies" are not so many in number as those of other musicians, but in quality they surpass them all. In his later years he became deaf, and could not hear the music he continued to play and compose.

If we had room, we might give equal attention to the life and achievements of such German composers as Felix Men'delssohn (1809-1847), Johannes Brahms (1833-1897), and Richard Wagner (våg'ner) (1813-1883). Wagner put into music the story of some of the famous German legends. *Lohengrin*, *The Ring of the Nibelungen*, *Tannhäuser*—is there anyone who knows music who does not recognize something from these great compositions?

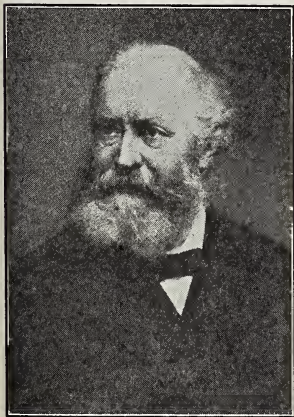
Austria also gave much to the world of music. We have mentioned Joseph Haydn (1732-1809) and Wolfgang Mozart (1756-1791) as having already made a name for themselves in Vienna when Beethoven came there. Haydn

was employed by a well-to-do Hungarian nobleman as the director of his private orchestra. Haydn first worked out the arrangement of players and instruments which makes the symphony orchestra such a wonderful means of expression in music. Mozart learned from Haydn, and in his short life produced music of rare quality. Franz Schubert (shū-bairt) (1797-1828) wrote many songs and symphonies.

Other countries produced masters of music, though not so many. France, for example, had François Gounod (gōō-nō') (1818-1893), whose opera *Faust* has done almost as much as Goethe did himself to make the old German legend known to the world, and Claude



MOZART



GOUNOD

Debussy (de bōōs'sŷ) (1862–1918), whose music had unusual color and variety. Italy produced Gioachino Rossini (rōs sē'nē) (1792–1868), who commemorated William Tell in a famous opera; Gaetano Donizet'ti (1797–1848), whose greatest production was *Lucia di Lammermoor*; and Giuseppe Verdi (1813–1901), whose *Il Trovatō're* and *Aida* (äē'da) are famous. Hungary gave us Franz Liszt (1811–1886); Poland, Frederick Chopin (shō pān') (1809–1849); Norway, Edvard Grieg (grēk) (1843–1907); England, Arthur Sullivan (1842–1900) and Edward Elgar (1857–1934); and Czechoslovakia, Antonin Dvořák (dvōr'zhak) (1841–1904). Russia produced Peter Tschaikowsky (1840–1893), whose *Overture, 1812* tells in music the story of Napoleon's disastrous Russian invasion.

If your musical education is as advanced as it should be, you ought to be able to give the name and to recognize significant strains from at least one of the works of each composer mentioned in this section.

Dozens of other talented musicians have played or sung great music rather than composed it. The Italian Nicolò Paganini (pā gā nē'nē) (1782–1840) entranced people with his violin as perhaps no one else has been able to do. Ignace Paderewski (pā der ēf'skī) (1860–1941) of Poland is perhaps the most famous of all pianists, besides giving a year or so of his life as President of the republic of Poland just after World War I. Great opera singers include Madame Schumann-Heink (shū'man-hīnk') (1861–1936), born in Czechoslovakia, and Enrico Caru'so (1873–1921) of Italy. Among great orchestra conductors Walter Damrosch (dam'rosh), born in Germany (1862–), and Arturo Toscanini, born in Italy (1867–), are famous.

The New World has had a comparatively small part in the great achievements in the field of music. The earliest American to be recognized elsewhere for his musical talent was Edward MacDowell (1861–1908). Victor Herbert (1859–1924), who came from Ireland to the United States, produced an unusual number of comic operas with real musical quality. John Philip Sousa (sōō'sa) (1854–1932) was the greatest of all band masters, and Stephen Collins Foster (1826–1864) was first in American folk songs. If these names do not belong in the list of the great in music, they at least typify some of the ways in which music can express the life of a people. Symphonic orchestras and opera houses that

year after year draw big audiences to hear classical productions are far more common in the cities of Europe, however, than in the cities of the United States.

Do you like classical music? Why or why not? Do you think the radio has improved people's tastes or interest in music, or the contrary? Why has music been extensively introduced into courses of study in schools?

318. Modern Art and Architecture.—The language of art and architecture, like that of music, is universal. Painting and



THE GLEANERS

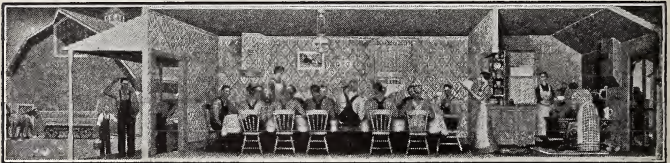
This is one of the best-known of Millet's paintings.

sculpture carry their message silently and can be interpreted in the language of the one who looks at the artist's work. Neither of these arts has regained the heights of genius displayed by some of the men of the Renaissance. For a considerable period practically no great works of art were produced.

In the eighteenth century Englishmen for a while took the place of leadership among painters. William Hogarth (1697–1764) painted graphically the evil side of England's political and social

life, and Joshua Reynolds (1723–1792) and the American Benjamin West (1738–1820), who spent much of his life in England, also contributed toward the revival of art in that country.

By the nineteenth century landscapes were no longer simply background for human figures, but were painted for their own sake. The Englishman Joseph Turner (1775–1851) was one of the greatest of modern artists. France produced Corot (cō rō') (1796–1875) as a painter of nature and Millet (mil lay') (1814–1875), who represented the peasant life of France. George Inness (1825–1894) of the United States is regarded by many as one of the notable landscape painters of the world. James Whistler (1834–1903) was



DINNER FOR THRESHERS

Here is a type of art that appeals strongly to some because it is so true to life. This Iowa painter, Grant Wood, knows his subjects.

another American and John Singer Sargent (1856–1925) still another who spent many years in Europe and gained much fame for painting of unusual quality.

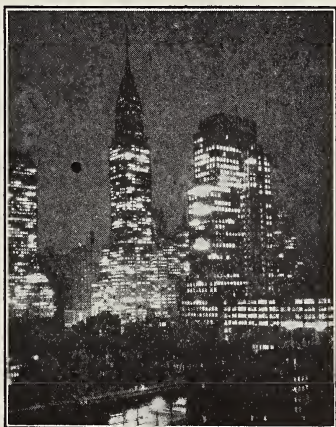
Modern artists only rarely go back to Biblical or classical times for their ideas. They seek to present modern life in the form of a city skyscraper, a steam shovel at work, or a cowboy on the western plains, just as those objects or persons create their impressions upon the eye of a watchful observer. Compare the two pictures shown here and on page 613 with those on pages 322 and 323. We are leaving it to your art teacher to tell you what he thinks of such modern "art" as the impressionists and cubists create.

After the great age of Renaissance sculpture there came a period when cheap and showy style was popular, but toward the end of the eighteenth century an interest in simple and sincere work returned. Canō'va of Italy and Thorwaldsen (tor'wald sen) of Denmark were the leaders in this revival. Thorwaldsen (1770–1844) has left in Copenhagen many of his great works, besides

the famous *Lion of Lucerne* carved out of the natural rock in the Swiss city of Lucerne (page 478). About the same time the Frenchman Houdon (ō don') was making portrait busts of famous characters such as Voltaire and Napoleon.

Meunier (mū nyā') of Belgium fashioned the everyday working man, and Rodin (rō dān') of France, whom some call the greatest of modern sculptors, produced *The Thinker*, surely the most famous work of our own day. St. Gaudens and other American sculptors of the later nineteenth century and the twentieth have made many statues of great characters of American history. We have mentioned only a few examples of modern artists; perhaps more men and women than ever before in history are doing something at expressing human life and thought in lasting form in stone or bronze.

For a long time after the Renaissance period no new ideas in architecture were introduced, though certain distinct types of mansions or plain dwellings became common in the American colonies, far removed from European life. More recently, great engineers have met the demands of modern industry and business by producing something that the world had never seen before — the skyscraper. Now almost every office building and many a church, school, or other large structure makes use of structural iron and concrete. So industry, without intending to do so, has given the world a new type of architecture. Europe has not yet taken kindly to the skyscraper. It may be artistic, however, as well as practical. The Empire State Building of New York City, now the highest in the world, has an impressive attractiveness about it



Publishers' Photo

SKYSCRAPERS BY NIGHT

Does not this picture of some of New York's tallest buildings suggest that they have a certain beauty both by night and by day?

that once one could never have seen in a business building. Some of the very "modern" ideas in building construction, light, and ventilation may revolutionize the form of the dwellings, offices, and factories of the future.

Americans, Englishmen, and Frenchmen, as well as other people, have come to want their cities and public places to be attractive as well as useful. Great cities have their art commissions, whose approval must be given to the laying out of public squares or the setting up of monuments or the decoration of public buildings. No longer in any civilized country is a big factory or store or public building a thing to boast of merely because it is big.

Do you think there will ever be another Michelangelo? In putting up monuments, memorial tablets, and the like, do the communities that you know of try to make them artistic? Which carries the clearest picture to your mind, a painting or a statue? What features in the construction of dwellings will practically every new house have today that were either unknown or uncommon fifty years ago? Why do you suppose Europeans have not built many skyscrapers?

319. Religious Organizations and the Government. — Religion as well as every other phase of human interest has felt the pulse of change. Much has happened since the treaty of Westphalia allowed a ruler of a German state three choices in the religious field instead of two. We may distinguish three ways of handling the relation between "church and state."

(1) There can be a state church supported by public taxation, with everybody supposed to conform to it. (2) There can be a state church recognized by the government and given more or less support, while other religious bodies are perfectly free to worship as they please — religious *toleration*. (3) Any religious group may be allowed to worship as it pleases so long as it does not offend public order or decency, with no group receiving any special recognition or aid from the government — religious *freedom*.

All over the world we have seen in the last 300 years a tendency to pass from the first stage sometimes through the second and sometimes directly to the third. England still keeps the Episcopal, or Anglican, Church as its established church, but members of any other religious faith are entirely free to worship as they please. The English church has been "disestablished" in Ireland and

Wales, where the great mass of the people never were in sympathy with it.

In many countries — France, Italy, and the South American republics, for example — most of the people are Roman Catholic; yet other religions are not forbidden, and in some cases political leaders have not hesitated to get into lively arguments with the Pope. In trying to weaken the power of the Roman Catholic Church, the governments of both Spain and Mexico went even so far as to cause an open break between the church and the government, although most of the people still remain Catholic. France set aside in 1905 the Concordat made by Napoleon with the Pope just 100 years earlier, so that now *all* the churches in France depend upon the contributions of the people for their support. Turkey has not only “fired” the Sultan but has abandoned all formal connection between the government and the Mohammedan religion.

If we could only look upon religious persecution as one of the outworn practices of the Middle Ages — but no! Some so-called Christian countries — Rumania, for example — have treated very harshly members of other religious bodies than that favored by the government. In Russia at one time we saw the strange case of a government trying to turn its people against all religion. It even forbade the teaching of it to those under 18 years of age. But in late years it has refrained from interfering with religious worship by its people. Hitler in Germany had no use for religion except as it might further his own pretensions.

Among all the religious bodies in history perhaps the Jews have had the most varied and unpleasant experiences. “Anti-Semite” movements are not new. Medieval Christian countries either treated the Jews very harshly or tried to drive them out. We have mentioned (§ 283) the nineteenth-century pogroms in Russia. Anti-Jewish persecutions also began in 1933 in Germany on a serious scale. Jewish officials in the government and in the universities were forced out of office. Jewish people were hounded in their professions and places of business and made practically outcasts in the life of their communities, under the charge that the Jews were to blame for much of the distress from which Germany was suffering and that they held altogether too many places of

importance in German life. Holland was the first country to give religious freedom to the Jews. A considerable number of Jewish people have also found places in the business and social life of England and a still larger number in the United States, which is now the chief Jewish country in the world.



STIRRING UP FEELING AGAINST THE JEWS

Wide World

The poster refers to the storekeeper in front of whose establishment these "storm-troopers" are passing out handbills attacking the Jews.

Would it be possible for a truly conscientious person to encourage religious persecution today? Is there any disadvantage in religious toleration as a definite policy if all faiths are allowed to worship as they please?

320. Religious Thinking and Teaching.— We have noticed that one effect of the Protestant movement of the sixteenth century was to multiply the number of divisions of Christians. Today, however, the tendency among Protestants is to talk less about the differences of opinion that may honestly exist and stress more the objects which all religious bodies have in common. Sometimes this trend goes so far as to bring about actual union of separate organizations, as in Canada, where the majority of

Presbyterians, Methodists, and Congregationalists have all come together in the United Church of Canada. In other places — and this is especially true in foreign missionary work — different denominations co-operate closely and try to avoid competing with one another unnecessarily. Thus they save money and come nearer presenting a united front against non-Christian religions.

To win all non-Christians to Christianity would be a tremendous undertaking, for only about one-third of the people of the world



THE CATHEDRAL AT MILAN

A person of any faith can hardly fail to be deeply impressed by a visit to this wonderful cathedral. Some consider it the finest in Europe.

belong to the various Christian bodies; yet many Christians believe it is their duty to attempt it. Roman Catholic missionaries had wonderful success for a time in Asia and also during the early period of discovery in the New World. Protestant missionary work began to be active in the latter part of the eighteenth century, and since that time some Protestant bodies have been very energetic in trying to win converts from the "heathen." Asia, Africa, and the Pacific islands furnish the chief field for missionary activities. Perhaps 10,000,000 Christians today have been converted from other faiths. Mohammedans have been found perhaps the hardest to make any impression upon.

One cannot count the results of Christian missions by merely reckoning the number of converts, however. Missionary work today includes much more than preaching. Medical missionaries, teachers, social workers, translators, and others have gained the confidence of the people with whom they worked, uplifted the stand-



Wide World

SIR WILFRED GRENFELL AND LADY GRENFELL

The work of these devoted — missionaries, shall we call them? — in Labrador proves that chivalry and Christian sacrifice are not dead.

ard of living among them, and thus made Christianity attractive. Early American missionaries in Hawaii converted most of the people of the islands and gained an enormous influence in their government. Cannibals and slave traders have been forced to abandon their disgraceful practices as a result of the work of missionaries. It has been charged that Christianity in

Asia and Africa was bolstered by the money of traders and the gunboats of foreign governments and has been forced upon unwilling peoples. In general that charge is unjustified. Some leaders of Christian missionary work, however, do believe that the time has come when missionaries from Europe and America should gradually withdraw from foreign fields and leave the work to be carried on by native Christians.

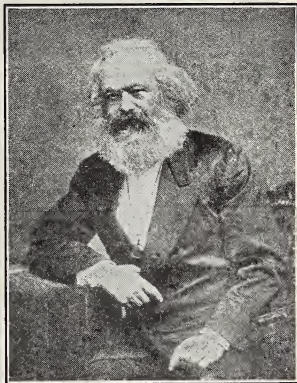
If somebody came to the United States to preach a new religion, do you think he would be received any differently from the way non-Christian countries have received Christian missionaries? What principles and ideas are emphasized by all religions in common — Christian and non-Christian? Are there enough of these to permit people of many different religious beliefs to live in harmony in the same country? Why have the policies of governments sometimes made harder the work of missionaries?

321. Programs for Radical Change. — A considerable number of people think that in spite of all the progress we have made in

the last century and a half, many features of our industrial and social life are all wrong. They say that the evils of our times are due mainly to the piling up of vast wealth in the hands of a few individuals. They declare that the power that this wealth wields should be taken out of the hands of the few and transferred to the government or to the whole people.

Most of these folks who are greatly dissatisfied with our present system, which they refer to as capitalism, come into one of two groups. *Socialists* want the government to own and operate all the great industries and to control the land and natural resources. They demand that capital and what they call the means of production — factories, railroads, mines, and the like — should be publicly owned and managed in the interests of all the people. *Com'munists* go still further. They want to do away with private property entirely. Everything, they say, should be the property of the whole community, even one's house and the tools he works with.

Some Socialists have been called Marxian and others Utopian. The book *Das Kapital*, published in Germany in 1867 by Karl Marx, is almost a Bible to Marxian Socialists. Marx was a German by birth; but when he began to talk and write about socialism, he was forced to leave Germany. He spent several years in England, doing much of his writing there. He maintained that ever since the world began there has been strife between one class and another — master and slave, patrician and plebeian, lord and serf, and now capitalist and wage-earner. He wanted the wage-earner to take control of politics and then in all countries to operate the "instruments of production." To the laborer he said, "You have nothing to lose but your chains."



KARL MARX

Communists as well as Socialists look to him for arguments to support their theories.

The Utopian Socialists did not talk so much about wiping out capitalists as of establishing new communities which would be carried on with the welfare of all members as their guiding principle. Robert Owen, an English manufacturer who was not satisfied with the way he acquired his own wealth, was deeply interested in founding such communities. He made several attempts to do so, especially in the United States, but none of them lasted.

French socialism is linked most closely with the name of Louis Blanc. One of his favorite propositions was that man has an inalienable right to work. If he is not in a position to exercise that right, he said, the government should furnish him a job. The "national workshops" (§ 260) set up during the revolutionary period of 1848 in France were the result of this idea, but those who were in authority at the time, you remember, did not believe in Blanc's theories and did not want them to succeed. That was one reason for their terrible failure.

Socialist parties have made considerable headway in some countries. Bismarck tried both directly and indirectly to sit down on socialism in Germany, and Socialists were blamed for many of the difficulties of Italy after World War I and of Germany in 1933. In England the Labor party has come nearest to working along lines which Socialists advocate. Government ownership and operation of railroads and other public utilities are fairly common in Europe. Many co-operative societies have been established in Great Britain and on the continent to buy or even to manufacture the everyday necessities of family life. These, however, are private organizations and are not conducted by the government. An eight-hour working day, child labor laws, progressive income taxes, and the initiative and referendum in law-making are among the measures which Socialists have demanded; but one could believe in any or all of these without calling himself a Socialist. Even the Russians, though they use the word "Socialist" in the name of their country, do not give Karl Marx credit for their activities.

If your community or state has a Socialist party, find out what it advocated in the last election. Would anything be gained by transferring the control of capital from those who now have it to another group

in the same community or country? Why do you suppose Robert Owen's communities came to nothing? Could we get along without capital in somebody's hands?

Communism would call for much greater changes than socialism. Under it the right of private property on the part of individuals would disappear. The Soviet government in Russia calls itself "Socialist" but the program which it first set up in Russia was usually called Communism in other countries. Sometimes ideas which are virtually communistic have been advocated under other names. It has been proposed that all workers shall be united in "one big union" and that this union shall get into its hands the entire control of government and industry. In France people with similar ideas have called themselves *syndicalists*.

Many Communists have not hesitated to advocate violence. They would declare general strikes or even use bombs to overthrow those who are now in power. Such methods lose the sympathy of people who might otherwise be willing to consider whether there might be something good in communistic proposals. In the early stages of the Hitler government in Germany Communists were considered enemies of the state, and the party was suppressed. In various countries, including our own, the Communists may present candidates to the voters at elections. In France and Spain, Socialists, Communists, and some others have sometimes combined at elections, calling themselves collectively the "popular front."

Could a kindly, well-disposed person be an honest believer in communism? If communism were to be adopted anywhere, would it have to be done through violence and bloodshed?

322. Have We a Better World? — A strange question to ask if we are going to have a world war every twenty years! We certainly have not learned how to control those who would make war rather than not have their own way. Yet our world is surely far different from what it was two hundred years ago, if we can turn our thoughts away from war. There is less suffering and better care for those who are afflicted. Even the poor have more leisure time and much greater opportunity for amusement or improvement. We know much more than we once did about the world.

Is our world better than it was two hundred years ago? Remember the cartoons of Hogarth on English political life. There is still crookedness in politics, but seldom as open as he pictured. Recall how the Church of England had become so formal and cold that it took the live-wire preaching of the Wesleys to wake up the country and put reality into religion again. Today some say that the Church has lost its hold upon the lives of the majority of the people; yet it is certainly interested in a much wider way in their welfare than in the eighteenth century, for it thinks about their social well-being as well as about getting people to heaven. When we say "the Church," of course we mean religious bodies of any name.

Have social customs and ideals been raised or lowered in these last two hundred years? Surely public drunkenness is far less common than at the middle of the eighteenth century. Today all civilized nations realize the need of some control of the evils of intoxicating liquor. Divorces are much more common now than two hundred years ago. Does that mean that family life has gone on the rocks or simply that differences are now admitted publicly which once would have somehow been covered up or ignored? Probably people will not agree in their answer to such questions as these. With all the improvement we have made socially, industrially, and politically, there is certainly room for a great deal more; but since we have gained so much in some ways in less than two hundred years, we ought to hope that in the next two hundred the world may overcome difficulties which it has not yet learned to conquer.

Do happiness, morality, and riches go hand in hand? Are the inducements to honest, upright living greater today than they were two hundred years ago? In judging a nation's well-being, what must we take into account besides material prosperity?

IDEAS TO STAY WITH US

The world of today is more widely different from the world of 1750 than the world of 1750 was from that of any earlier period.

The Industrial Revolution, which started in England in the second half of the eighteenth century, was marked by a great number of notable inventions which completely changed the methods of manufacturing. This revolution spread in the nineteenth century to the

continent of Europe and to the United States, and since to every other continent.

The Industrial Revolution had far-reaching effects upon the life of civilized people. It brought about mass production in industry and new methods of organizing and managing business activities. Changes in methods of farming accompanied changes in manufacturing. It caused the growth of great cities. It produced new relations between classes of workers and between workers and employers.

The evils that grew up in factories and mines forced the abandonment of the laissez-faire theory of the government's relation to industry; and as time went on a steadily increasing regulation and control of industry by the government was undertaken in most civilized countries.

The rising importance of manual workers enabled them to form unions and to act together much more effectively. Through their efforts and through changes in public opinion greatly improved conditions at work and at home were brought about for the great mass of the working people.

Quicker means of transportation and communication have brought the peoples of the world together and developed new common interests. Emigration from Europe to the New World has been encouraged and the use of European languages spread.

Great responsibility for the care of the needy and the unfortunate has been accepted by governments in all civilized lands. Special progress has been made in the promotion of health and the control of harmful habits. Women and children have gained a higher place in the life and attention of civilized peoples.

Men's knowledge about the world has tremendously increased. The contributions of science to human improvement have been extraordinary.

Education has become the right of child and adult in all progressive countries. We think of it as a means of development and not merely the acquiring of information. Literature of all kinds in books, magazines, and newspapers has tremendously increased. Music and art have made great and varied contributions. The attractiveness of cities and towns, of homes, offices, and factories receives regular and earnest consideration.

The relations of religious bodies to governments have in most countries tended toward greater religious liberty for the individual, though ill-treatment for religious reasons has not wholly disappeared.

Some people are still dissatisfied with the industrial and social progress of the world. They demand that governments take over

far-reaching responsibilities for the control of industrial activities and the life of individuals.

NAMES AND TERMS WE SHOULD UNDERSTAND

- | | | |
|-------------------------------------|--------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. Industrial Revolution | 33. Industrial union | 65. Froebel |
| 2. Machine Age | 34. Collective bargaining | 66. Spencer |
| 3. Kay | 35. MacAdam | 67. Dewey |
| 4. Hargreaves | 36. De Lesseps | 68. Browning |
| 5. Arkwright | 37. Goethals | 69. Tennyson |
| 6. Crompton | 38. Fulton | 70. Kipling |
| 7. Cartwright | 39. Stephenson | 71. Scott |
| 8. Watt | 40. Wright brothers | 72. Dickens |
| 9. Whitney | 41. Zeppelin | 73. Hugo |
| 10. Domestic system | 42. Lindbergh | 74. Dumas |
| 11. Factory system | 43. Universal Postal Union | 75. Goethe |
| 12. Slater | 44. Morse | 76. Schiller |
| 13. Rotation of crops | 45. Field | 77. Tolstoy |
| 14. McCormick | 46. Marconi | 78. Bach |
| 15. Bessemer; Kelley | 47. Wilberforce | 79. Handel |
| 16. Daguerre | 48. Jenner | 80. Beethoven |
| 17. Howe | 49. Pasteur | 81. Wagner |
| 18. Goodyear | 50. Koch | 82. Haydn |
| 19. Edison | 51. Lister | 83. Mozart |
| 20. Mass production | 52. Röntgen | 84. Paderewski |
| 21. Corporation | 53. Red Cross; Du-nant; Barton | 85. Sousa |
| 22. Money | 54. Dix | 86. Turner |
| 23. Credit | 55. Howard | 87. Corot |
| 24. Foreign exchange | 56. Lyell | 88. Millet |
| 25. Smith; <i>Wealth of Nations</i> | 57. Darwin | 89. Whistler |
| 26. Laissez faire | 58. Cook | 90. Thorwaldsen |
| 27. Protective tariff | 59. Peary | 91. Rodin |
| 28. Public utilities | 60. Amundsen | 92. Religious toleration |
| 29. Codes (industrial) | 61. Byrd | 93. Religious freedom |
| 30. Division of labor | 62. Comenius | 94. Anti-Semite |
| 31. Labor union | 63. Pestalozzi | 95. Socialism |
| 32. Craft or trade union | 64. Herbart | 96. Marx; <i>Das Kapital</i> |
| | | 97. Blanc |
| | | 98. Communism |

DATES WORTH REMEMBERING

- | | |
|---|-------------------------------------|
| 1767 Hargreaves' spinning jenny | 1844 Morse's telegraph in operation |
| 1776 <i>Wealth of Nations</i> published | |
| 1807 Fulton's steamboat | 1876 Telephone made practical |
| 1833 Abolition of slavery in England | 1909 North Pole reached by Peary |

INTERESTING SUBJECTS YOU MAY LIKE TO KNOW ABOUT

Notable Inventions and Inventors of the Eighteenth Century
 Adam Smith, His Writings and His Ideas
 The Correction of Undesirable Conditions in English Factories
 The Industrial Progress of Germany
 The Bessemer Process and Its Importance in the Steel Industry
 The Development of the Automobile Industry
 Stages in the Improvement of Highway Construction
 Famous Canals of the World
 The Beginnings of the Railroad and the Locomotive
 Modern Ideas and Possibilities in Railroad Equipment
 How Postal Systems Have Improved
 Early Experiments in Air Travel
 Pioneers of the Air in the Twentieth Century
 Problems in the Field of Aviation Today
 Discoverers and Experimenters in the Field of Radio
 Electricity as a Factor in Modern Life
 The Progress of Photography
 Farming as It Is and as It Used to Be
 How Science Plays a Part in Industry Today
 Ways in Which I Might Send Money Abroad
 The Organization and Policies of a Modern Labor Union
 Industrial Codes in the United States
 The Abolition of Slavery in Various Countries
 Famous Workers for Prison Reform
 The History of the Red Cross Society
 How Nations Have Tried to Control the Liquor Trade
 Notable Examples of Cleaning Up Plague Spots
 The Life and Achievements of Louis Pasteur
 The Life and Achievements of Robert Koch
 The Life and Achievements of the Curies
 Just What Did Darwin Believe?
 Five Great Scientists of Recent Years
 The Quest of the North Pole
 The Quest of the South Pole
 A Comparison of the School Systems of England, France, Germany, and the United States
 Educational Leaders of the Past
 Famous Colleges or Universities of Different Nations
 Famous Authors Whom the Whole World Knows (include representatives of several different nations)
 The Beginnings of Newspapers and Magazines
 Famous Newspapers of Today (include representatives of several countries)
 Great Musicians of Germany (or Austria, or France, or England, or the United States)

Socialism and Communism in the World Today

12. Make a table in the following form:

INVENTION	INVENTOR	NATIONALITY	DATE	SPECIAL IMPORTANCE

13. A debate or argument between an employer and a labor reformer in 1850 over the eight-hour day.

14. A debate or argument on: Resolved, that polar explorations have been justified by their results.

15. A graph or map of the world showing the relative amount of illiteracy in various countries.

16. A graph or map of the world showing the relative importance and location of different religious bodies today.

17. An open forum to discuss what works of literature should be included in a "five-foot shelf" of modern authors.

18. A period with the modern masters of music. (Have different members of the class present brief biographies of notable musicians and either themselves or with the help of other members play on the piano some notable contribution of each.)

19. A day with modern artists. (Have brief biographies presented of famous painters or sculptors of the nineteenth or twentieth centuries and prints or copies of some of their notable works passed around the class or otherwise used by way of illustration.)

20. A speech or discussion on: Why I Am Glad (or Not Glad) That I Am Living Today instead of in the Time of George Washington.

21. Continue your Chart of Trends in World Progress.

PLACES FOR FURTHER READING

Cheyney, *Industrial and Social History of England*, VIII

Hayes, *Political and Social History of Modern Europe*, Vol. II, Chs. XVIII, XIX, XXI, XXXV

Knight, Barnes, and Flugel, *Economic History of Europe*

Robinson and Beard, *The Development of Modern Europe*, Vol. I, 244, 245, 446-456; Vol. II, Chs. I, IV, XIII, XVIII-XX, 147-150

Wells, *Outline of History*, 922-958

Caldwell and Slosson, *Science Remaking the World*

Cheney, *The History of Art*

Cheyney, *Readings in English History*

Cubberley, *Brief History of Education*

Curie, *Madam Curie*

Darrow, *New World of Physical Discovery*

De Kruif, *Microbe Hunters*; *Men against Death*

Hazen, *Europe since 1815*

Holland, *Historic Inventions*

Joy, *Ten Englishmen of the Nineteenth Century*

McGehee, *People and Music*

Ogg, *Economic Development of Modern Europe*

Osgood, *History of Industry*

Riis, *How the Other Half Lives*

Spaeth, *Stories Behind the World's Great Music*

Talbot, *All about Inventions and Discoveries*

Ticknor, *Social and Industrial History of England*

Van Loon, *The Arts*

Bleackley, *The Monster*

Brighthouse, *Hepplehall's*

Brontë, *Shirley*

Browning, Mrs., *The Cry of the Children*

Craik, John Halifax, *Gentleman*

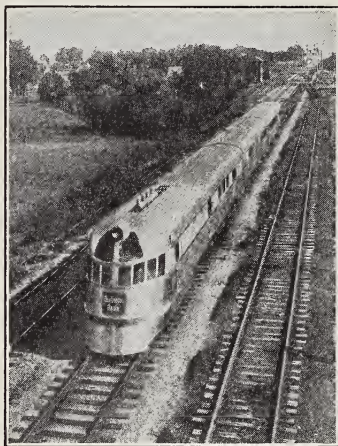
Dickens, *Oliver Twist*; *Old Curiosity Shop*; *Nicholas Nickleby*

Eliot, *Silas Marner*; *Felix Holt*

Gaskell, *Mary Barton*; *North and South*

Kingsley, *Alton Locke*

Weyman, *The Great House*; *The Starvecrow Farm*



Ewing Galloway

A BURLINGTON ZEPHYR

Here is one of the new style trains, "streamlined," of course. It is made of stainless steel and operates with a Diesel engine. What a contrast between the stagecoach shown at the beginning of this unit and this extraordinarily comfortable "speed merchant"!



VICTORIA FALLS

Publishers' Photo

Many wonders of nature are first seen by civilized men only as they become explorers of new territory. These falls in Rhodesia, South Africa, have been called the most wonderful in the world.

XV. THE WORLD-WIDE ADVANCE OF EUROPEAN CIVILIZATION

Trade is the golden girdle of the globe. — COWPER

*Take up the White Man's burden —
And reap his old reward.* — KIPLING

Once it was common for Europeans to think that nothing important ever happened outside of Europe and the Near East, and for Americans to act as if the world began in 1492 and was bounded by the Atlantic and the Pacific Oceans. In reality the tremendous changes which we considered in the last unit affected the whole world. European trade, conquest, and colonization reached out to every part of the globe, carrying with them some of Europe's civilization and to some people a chance at democracy. Both the United States and Europe have had a part in this movement.

Pointers for Our Study:

Why have civilized nations been anxious to extend their trade and authority to backward countries?

How did the contact of western civilization with the East affect eastern Asia?

Why was most of Africa so long outside the range of civilization, and how was it brought under the control of European powers?

What progress in civilization has the New World made, especially since its separation from European control?

What place in world affairs has been gained by the dominions and colonies that form the far-flung British Empire?

Has this expansion of Europe been good for Europe and for the rest of the world?

323. Why Foreign Interests Expanded. — As the Industrial Revolution developed in England and in other great countries,



A STAGE IN THE MANUFACTURE OF RUBBER

The latex, which runs out of the rubber tree when it is cut, is gathered by men who go around with buckets.

two main reasons for foreign trade stood out: (1) They needed raw material for their factories in greater quantities than could be produced at home; and sometimes this raw material could not possibly be produced there — for example, take the cotton mills of England and the rubber factories of the United States. (2) Manufacturing countries might easily produce more articles than they could sell at home; and where would there be any better place to look for buyers than among those people who had not advanced far enough industrially to make these things themselves?

Other reasons also played their part in bringing about this widening of interests. When one nation seemed to be engaging in foreign trade profitably, other nations got into the game also. As individuals and corporations sought some place to invest their wealth, they got "concessions" in undeveloped countries permitting them to build railroads, establish rubber plantations, or look for oil, gold, or something else that they could sell at a profit. These often led to the extending of the authority of the home government over regions where such business rights were exercised. If in a backward country a missionary or a "concessionaire" got into trouble, his home government might be tempted to interfere — and you know the fable about the camel getting his nose inside the tent!

Do the motives mentioned here for European expansion in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries seem to be the same as in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries? Do you know any business organization that has offices or carries on much business in foreign countries? If so, just how are their foreign interests of benefit to them?

In studying this unit make use of maps following pages 638 and 670, as well as those appearing in connection with particular sections.

Observe, perhaps with the help of the time-chart on page 9, the place of this unit in the whole story.

324. Imperialism and the White Man's Burden. — *Imperialism* is a word that at first seems to carry an unpleasant sense. It commonly suggests the control exercised by stronger nations over weaker or less civilized people. Usually the backward people have not asked to be controlled. Sometimes a nation lets the weaker country govern itself, but insists that it shall have the right to approve what is done there or protect it against possible enemies. Such an arrangement is a *protectorate*. England's interest in Egypt and that of the United States in Cuba for some years deserved that title.

Sometimes, too, the acquisition of territory began by a nation's getting special trade rights — to build a railroad, to buy and sell goods, or something of that kind — with the understanding that it alone should have such privileges in that particular neighborhood. Such an arrangement is frequently called a *sphere of influence*. Once it looked as if China would be divided into several spheres of influence by European powers, which would

probably turn them into colonial possessions sooner or later. Sometimes, also, nations have desired to get distant possessions to use as coaling stations for their navies or as centers of operation in time of war.

At the end of the nineteenth century, when the United States and Great Britain were having some trouble with people who had



Publishers' Photo

PRIMITIVE MEN IN CEYLON

These people are descendants of the original inhabitants of the island. They prefer to live in the wilderness and do not care for civilization.

been brought under their respective flags but were not anxious to come under those flags, Rudyard Kipling wrote that striking poem, *The White Man's Burden*, in which he sets forth the problems and disappointments met by nations that try to improve the condition of distant subjects. Great Britain and the United States have honestly desired that wherever their flag went the blessings of civilization should

follow. Who can tell how much of selfishness and how much of good will animates a man or nation that expects to get some benefit out of doing good to other people? Governors, judges, and missionaries who have gone out from comfortable homes to spend years among strangers in a distant clime were certainly in many cases moved by the kindest purposes. One must not explain imperialism entirely on the basis of greed or a desire for prestige; destiny and a willingness to be of service also come into the story.

What does the word *imperialism* suggest to you? Was it imperialism when the United States annexed the Philippines but not when it annexed Louisiana? Were the founding of English colonies along the Atlantic coast of North America and the maintaining of British authority in India both examples of imperialism?

325. The Colonizing Nations. — Most of the nations that founded trading companies and colonies in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries still have colonies. Great Britain has been the most successful of all as a colonizing power. The Empire at its greatest extent was the largest in all history, and it was said that the sun never set on Britain's dominions. Even yet, every continent has at least some spot which flies the Union Jack, and it floats over a large part of the soil of some of them.

Russia comes next in the extent of its territory. On the map it makes one vast continuous stretch with more of it in Asia than in Europe. Much of it is unfit to live in, however, and until recently little was done to make use of the immense resources in the parts where people can live.

France and Germany almost deliberately imitated Great Britain in attempting to build up a world-wide trade and colonial empire, but Germany lost hers through the first World War. France has ruled or controlled a considerable portion of northern Africa, including a good share of the Sahara Desert, and has had other African possessions as well. It also had its province of French Indo-China and a few islands under its flag in the West Indies and in the Pacific Ocean.

Not much is left of the mighty empire over which Spain once ruled. Her American possessions and Pacific possessions are all gone, and all she claims now are a few islands in the Atlantic Ocean and a little bit of the northwest coast of Africa. Portugal, too, lost her American possessions and has little left except two patches of African territory and a trading post or two in India.

The East Indian *island* empire of the Dutch used to be second in area only to Britain's. They still have a few possessions in the New World. The two nearest us are islands in the West Indies. Italy had colonies in Africa, and Belgium has a large one there. Japan took Germany's Pacific territories away from her during World War I and then undertook far-reaching conquests on the continent of Asia. The United States, too, has been in the colonizing business with the Philippines, Hawaii, American Samoa, and a number of smaller islands in the Pacific Ocean under her rule. Denmark sold to the United States her West Indian islands but still claims Greenland.

Taking the continents one by one, we may line them up as follows with reference to their control by outside powers: North America is independent of Europe except for Canada and British Honduras; South America is independent except for the three Guianas; the West Indies are under several flags. Africa is claimed by European countries to the extent of more than five-sixths of its area; the little Negro republic of Liberia has thus far kept its independence,



CONFUCIUS

Those who can read the Chinese characters in the picture say that they declare this to be a true likeness of the ancient wise man.

and Egypt has today regained it. In Asia, Siam (once called Thailand), China, Turkey, Iran (Persia), Arabia, Iraq, Burma, Israel, and Afghanistan have been independent at least in name. Russia rules much of the Asiatic continent. India and Pakistan, as well as Australia, belong to the British Commonwealth of Nations, and there are islands in the Pacific which recognize the British, Dutch, French, and American flags.

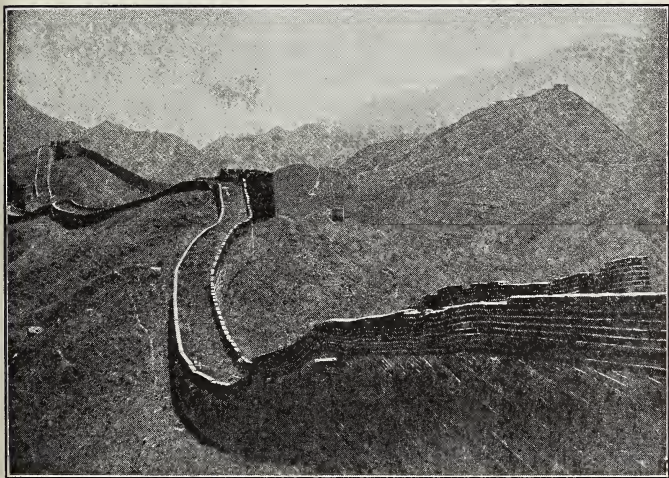
Is it more expensive or otherwise undesirable for a nation to have colonies a long way off than near at hand?

326. Europe Arouses China.

—One-fourth of the whole population of the world has lived for centuries in eastern Asia.

Civilization began there long before England existed or America was dreamed of. China has the oldest continuous civilization that we know anything about. Printing, gunpowder, and various trades and commodities useful in commerce and civilized life were known to the Chinese before Europe ever thought of wanting them. But the civilization of China and Japan progressed to a certain point and then stopped. Confucius, the great religious teacher of China (551–478 B.C.), set up

high moral standards for his people, including even a negative Golden Rule: "What you do not like when done to yourself, do not do to others." He also taught them a respect for the past that amounted almost to worship. The civilized peoples from much younger lands had to come around and wake the Chinese up before they realized how far behind the procession they had dropped. And they were not pleased to be waked up, either!



THE GREAT WALL OF CHINA

Publishers' Photo

This structure, now centuries old and in some places out of repair, still winds its way hundreds of miles over China's hills.

The Chinese had the idea that their kingdom and their civilization were superior to anything else in the world. China was the "Middle Kingdom," the center of the world; and its emperor was the "Son of Heaven." In the third century B.C. the Chinese built their Great Wall, stretching for 1500 miles across the northern part of their empire, to keep invaders out. After 1644 A.D., however, China was ruled by foreign conquerors from the north, the Manchus, who maintained themselves in power for two centuries and a half. They made the Chinese adopt the custom of wearing

their hair in a queue, as almost all Chinese did until the present century. (Make China's antiquity seem real by referring to the time-graphs on pages 38, 54, 113, 149, 164, 191, 203, and 259.)

Not long after Da Gama reached India by way of the Cape of Good Hope, captains of trading vessels tried to get commercial privileges in China; but for centuries the Chinese allowed Europeans to trade only at the one port of Canton, where Portuguese, English, Dutch, and later even American commercial vessels found their way. The Chinese government, seeing what terrible harm was coming to its people from the use of opium brought in from India, tried to stop its importation. The British government then made war upon China (1839-1842) to compel the Chinese to let English merchants sell the deadly stuff to them. The English people as a whole did not realize just what was involved in this "Opium War," but it is one of the stains on British policy in Asia. The Chinese were defeated and were obliged to give up the island of Hong Kong to Great Britain and to open Shanghai and a few other ports to British trade.

Two years later (1844) the United States and France appeared on the scene. Their representatives made commercial treaties with China and opened trade with that country through the "treaty ports." In 1856-1860 China had another war, this time against England and France, growing out of matters affecting trade; and once more China lost. More ports were opened, and China agreed to receive ambassadors and consuls from other countries. Just about this time Russia took advantage of China's weakness to get a foothold in the province of Manchuria and to acquire Vladivostok. Toward the end of the nineteenth century Germany began to compete with England, France, and the United States for Chinese trade; and China was forced to let the European countries have certain ports as centers for their operations.

If China had tried to exclude some useful commodity rather than opium, would it have been justifiable for Great Britain or some other country to try to force China to permit trade in that product? Do you see any likeness between a tariff law and a "great wall"? Would it be harder for a people like the Chinese, whose civilization went far back, to see any good in a new civilization than for people who never had been civilized at all? What sort of written or printed language did the Chinese have? Might it have helped to keep them backward?





break of World War I, except those of the Netherlands, Denmark, Spain, Portugal, and are no more, and German boundaries in Europe are unsettled.

327. China Dislikes Foreigners. — Few of the Chinese had any desire to be forcibly modernized, though some enlightened Chinese attended universities in Europe and the United States and showed themselves capable of absorbing all the learning that white men could give them. Most Chinese, while perfectly willing to sell tea and firecrackers to foreigners, wanted the foreigners to stop at the edge of the water.

China got into further difficulty when her neighbors, the keen and lively Japanese, took on some European customs and learned to do things as Europeans did them. Japan, crowded as it was, wanted some outlet for its people and its products, and looked westward to Koré'a, for some time called the "Hermit Kingdom," as the nearest natural place for it to expand. Now it happened that China also claimed a sort of special interest in Korea. In 1894 Japan and China went to war over the matter. To the great surprise of China, the reorganized Japanese army and navy completely beat the Chinese soldiers and sailors with their antiquated equipment. So China had to recognize Korea as outside her influence, to pay money to Japan, and to turn over to her the island of Formosa and the peninsula in Manchuria on which Port Arthur is situated (1895).

Now Russia, Germany, and France, chagrined that Japan had got ahead of them in China, advised the Japanese that it would be dangerous to the peace of the Far East for Japan to hold Port Arthur. Not caring to fight all three nations at once, the Japanese withdrew. Then Russia induced China to lease Port Arthur to her for a long term and to let her build a railroad across Manchuria to that port. Germany and France also acquired special concessions.

The suspicious Chinese figured that acquiring these ports and spheres of influence was just the beginning of a program of dividing up the country. The Chinese government, now dominated by the Empress-Dowager Tze-hsi (tsē-shē'), secretly encouraged the Chinese to rise in revolt against the foreigners. A secret society, called by Europeans the *Boxers* because their Chinese name included the words *righteousness*, *harmony*, and *fists*, proposed to drive all the "foreign devils" out of China. In the year 1900 this "Boxer Rebellion" broke out openly. Some Chinese Christians

and representatives of the foreign governments were besieged by the Boxers and Chinese soldiers in the grounds of the British legation in Peking (today commonly called Peiping).



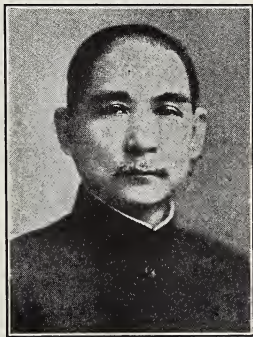
THE FAR EAST IN 1935

Some newspapers and magazines have done well in keeping their readers informed of changes in the map of the world in late months and years. Make use of them for comparison with this map and others in this book.

An expedition organized by Great Britain, France, Russia, Germany, Japan, and the United States marched to Peking and arrived

just in time to save the foreigners there from massacre. China then agreed to pay an indemnity to cover the cost of this expedition and other damages done to foreigners or their property. John Hay, who was Secretary of State under Presidents McKinley and Theodore Roosevelt, insisted that the policy of outside powers in China should favor the "open door" — that is, that no nation should take certain portions of the country for its exclusive benefit, but that trade in any port should be open to all nations alike. Great Britain and Japan supported Hay's proposition, and the other European powers did not dare to object to it. So China was saved, for the time being at least. The United States also became popular with the Chinese by not claiming all the indemnity which this country was to receive, and having some of it used for educating Chinese students in American colleges and universities.

The Empress who had been so strongly opposed to improvements, and the young Emperor who was under her thumb, now came to the conclusion that China would have to change some of its ways. No longer should men have to wear queues or women bind their feet. Efforts were made to stop opium smoking — and this time nobody tried to compel them to keep on. Railways were built and mines were opened.

*Keystone*

DR. SUN YAT SEN

The leader who tried to make China a modern republic but who perhaps was ahead of his time.

Do you see any likeness between the feeling of the Indians in North America toward white settlers and the attitude of the Chinese toward European traders and investors? Why in the year 1900 was the United States unusually able to take part in the expedition to Peking? Does it or should it make any difference to the United States what happens in China? Look up the significance of the term "dowager."

328. China Divided and Distressed. — The reforms started by the Chinese emperor and his strong-minded old aunt went much further than they expected. After their death, some educated Chinese, thinking their country could do far better under a new

government, led a rebellion which forced the infant emperor and his family to leave. In the early part of 1912 a Chinese republic was proclaimed in the southern part of the country under the lead of a sincere and able man, Dr. Sun Yat Sen. Another leader, less unselfish, Yuan Shih Kai (yuan' shē ki'), had so much influence in northern China that

Sun Yat Sen resigned the presidency of the new republic so that Yuan Shih Kai might have the office himself.

But was China ready to become a republic? Events since 1913 seem to suggest that things had moved altogether too fast. After Yuan's death, generals who commanded considerable numbers of soldiers got control of different parts of the country and kept China in disorder. Some of the time there were two separate governments, one in north China and the other in the southern part. Some of the generals would support first one government and then the other — whichever paid them better.



MADAME CHIANG KAI-SHEK AND THE GENERALISSIMO

Madame Chiang was educated in the United States.

Fearing that Japanese influence in the country was getting too strong, and hoping for sympathy from western powers, China went into World War I in 1917 on the side of the Allies but did not profit very much by doing so.

For a while after that war the Japanese influence in Chinese affairs was lessened; but in 1931, the Japanese, thinking that nobody would be willing to block their program, overran Manchuria and gave it a government under the name of Manchoukuo (man choo gō'). They occupied all of northeastern China north of the Great Wall. Perhaps never before in the history of the world was the conduct of a government more universally con-

demned than that of Japan toward China in 1931 and later; but no nation would risk helping China. Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek became the leader of China. When the Japanese renewed their attacks in 1937, the Chinese government retired to Chung-



FOUR CLASSES OF JAPANESE SOCIETY

A native Japanese artist pictured these types of old Japan — the soldier, the farmer the wood-worker, and the merchant.

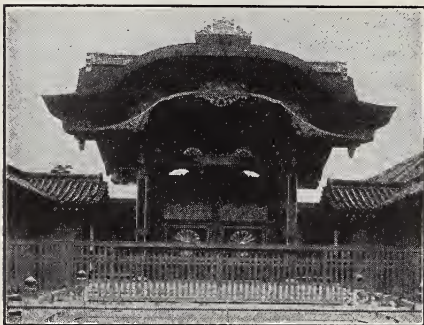
king. In the Charter of the United Nations, China is treated as one of the "Big Five," but recent events in that still unsettled country have greatly changed the situation.

If it had not been for outside interference, first from European powers and later from Japan, do you think China would have been able to make real progress? Why did not the rest of the world do anything about it when Japan started "beating up" China? What Chinese names do you see most often today in news from the Far East?

329. Japan's Early History. — Japan showed the world in less than a half-century one of the most extraordinary national transformations on record. You can hardly believe that "the land of the rising sun" in the middle of the nineteenth century is the country sometimes called "the flowery kingdom" today. Like China, Japan has a history that goes far back into the realm of legend. Until the year 1946, the Japanese still maintained that their

emperors are descended from the gods and that the same family has ruled in an unbroken line since 600 years before Christ. Buddhism and Confucianism are the prevailing religions in Japan as in China, along with Shintoism, which is a sort of worship of Nature and heroes with thousands of gods. The Japanese system of writing is much the same as the Chinese.

When Europe had a feudal system, one was in existence in Japan, and it continued there until far into the nineteenth century. The



A BUDDHIST TEMPLE © Publishers' Photo

Such temples as this one, at Kyoto, Japan, are not meant to accommodate large groups of worshipers at any one time. The entrance shown in this picture is especially reserved for the Emperor.

than the emperor. Under the daimios were the samurai (să'mu rī), or warriors, who were devoted to their lords and had to fight for them if necessary, just like feudal warriors in Europe in the Middle Ages. The rest of the people did not amount to anything socially or politically.

In the sixteenth century daring traders visited both Japan and China. Catholic missionaries came also, among them Francis Xavier. Hundreds of thousands of Japanese, as well as many Chinese, accepted Christianity. About the year 1600 the shogun concluded that western trade and religion were bad for his people and declared that he was going to get rid of them. A few years later all priests were ordered out of the country, churches destroyed, and Christians massacred if they would not go back

mikado (mī kā'dō), or emperor, was supposed to be the head of the government, but he lived in awesome seclusion in his imperial palace, and few people knew much about him. The daimios (dī'myōs), or the great landowners, were first in rank and influence in the country; and the chief daimio, who had the title of shogun, really carried on the government rather

to Buddhism. By 1638 every trace of Christianity in Japan was wiped out, and all commerce with foreign countries was forbidden. For two centuries Japan was about as much of a "hermit" nation as Korea.

Does the story of China and Japan justify the conclusion that any people may make themselves civilized if they want to without outside help? The official ancient history textbook of the Turkish government maintains that the civilization of China and Japan owes considerable to the Turks. Do you see any possible connection between Turkey and the Far East?

330. How Japan Took on Western Ways. — The United States of America began the opening of modern Japan to western civilization. After trade had been started with China, American seamen found it desirable sometimes to stop at Japanese ports for water and other things they needed, but the Japanese did not receive them courteously. President Fillmore decided to do something to open up relations with Japan, and sent over an expedition (1853) under the lead of Commodore Matthew C. Perry, brother of the victor in the famous naval battle of Lake Erie in the War of 1812. He carried with him a miniature railroad, telegraph instruments, a telescope, and some other things it was hoped the rulers of Japan might like to look at. Perry again visited Japan in 1854 with more ships and obtained an agreement for the opening up of two Japanese ports for trade with the United States. Soon European nations were getting trade rights to match those which had been granted to the United States, and more ports were opened. The Japanese finally concluded it was to their interest to pick out from western customs those things that seemed likely to enable them to get ahead.

The revolution which made Japan a first-rank power is closely connected with the name and rule of the enlightened Emperor Mutsuhito (mōōt'soo hē'to). He came to the throne in 1867 as a boy of fifteen but had the advantage of the advice of nobles who looked ahead rather than backward. Under his leadership Japan copied many features of European civilization, but did it slowly enough to avoid any serious antagonism. At the end of his long reign in 1912 Japan was the strongest Asiatic power. (Time-graph, page 484.)

The office of shogun was abolished and its powers taken over by the Emperor. Feudalism was rather rapidly and thoroughly removed. For some time Japan continued to have "barons" and other titled personages, but they were mostly not descended from the old aristocracy. In 1872 a public school system was established



A JAPANESE CLASSROOM

Publishers' Photo

These young ladies appear to be diligently at work. The Japanese written language seems very complicated to Europeans and Americans. It uses many thousands of characters instead of twenty-six letters.

and elementary education made compulsory. Today no nation in the world can show a much better record in literacy than Japan.

The Emperor sent Marquis Ito (ē'to) to visit Europe and then make recommendations about the kind of constitution that Japan ought to have. The Marquis was much taken with what he saw in Germany. The result was that Japan built its army more or less on the German model, and many features of the constitution which the Emperor issued in 1889 were patterned after Germany. That fact explains why the Japanese government has so often been

controlled by military men and why the representatives of the people have had less influence in public affairs than in countries like Great Britain and France.

For some time Japan made wonderful industrial progress. Railroads and merchant vessels built in Japan handled Japanese



WORKING IN A JAPANESE RICE FIELD

Publishers' Photo

Men and women alike help to grow this product, so important in the food supply of the Far East.

commerce at home and with other countries. Paper mills, iron and steel plants, factories to make cotton, woolen, and silk goods, and other marks of a progressive industrial nation are features of Japanese cities. Tokyo, the capital city, is still one of the largest in the world. At the same time, a large part of the people continue to make a living, such as it is, by farming. The comparatively few thousand of acres of the empire that are fit for agriculture are worked with a thoroughness hardly equaled anywhere. But there are still too many people to live comfortably on the Japanese islands; for with an area about equal to that of California,

Japan has about three-fourths the population of the entire United States. She must get more land somewhere, she thought.

If Japan could in a very few years teach more than 99 per cent of its people to read and write, should other countries—the United States, for example—feel ashamed that they still have a much larger number of illiterates? Would China have done better in her modernized government to have followed Japan's example instead of trying to set up a republic?

331. Japan's Advance through War.—Other nations looked with some interest at Japan's start toward modernizing herself, but without any idea that it would concern them. They opened their eyes wide, however, when Japan mopped up China so easily in the war of 1894 and 1895. This transformed nation of "little brown men" was going to be able to look out for itself very nicely. So Japan, as we have learned, was advised not to keep Port Arthur, and Russia took it instead. Russia promised that her stay in Manchuria with troops would be limited. Japan inquired several times just when Russia was going to leave, but the troops never went.

Concluding that Russia's promises meant nothing, Japan, without any warning, took some of her warships into the harbor of Port Arthur and attacked Russian ships there one day in February, 1904. Russia now had to abandon Manchuria or fight. Russia's troops had a much better reputation than they deserved, and her government was corrupt and inefficient. Moreover, Russia had to bring all her men and supplies all the way across Siberia on her far-stretched single-track railroad. Japan had no such handicap. She now had an army as well organized and capably managed as any in the world. The Japanese defeated the Russians in two great battles in Manchuria, and on January 1, 1905, captured the fortified town of Port Arthur. The crowning disaster for Russia came when a Russian fleet that had gone all the way around Africa to get to the seat of war was wiped out by the Japanese under Admiral Togo in the Straits of Korea (May 27, 1905).

Then President Theodore Roosevelt of the United States thought it was a favorable time to suggest that Russia and Japan had fought enough. Representatives of the two countries met at Portsmouth, New Hampshire, where, in September, 1905, a treaty

of peace was signed. Russia had to give up to Japan her lease on Port Arthur and to hand over one-half of the island of Sakhalin (sā ka lyēn'), off the northeastern shore of Asia. Russia had to withdraw from Manchuria and recognize Korea as independent under the protection of Japan.

How did Japan use her new power and importance? In 1910 she annexed Korea outright. Japan's rising prominence led Great Britain to make a treaty of alliance with her in 1902 and renew it in 1905 and 1911. It provided that if either party should be attacked by two nations, the other party would come to the aid of the nation that was attacked. This arrangement put a sort of damper on the aspirations of France and Germany in the Far East and perhaps helped for a time to keep things quiet. Japan came into World War I shortly after its beginning and helped itself to that part of China (Kiao-Chow (kyā'o chow'), in the Shantung peninsula) which was under Germany's control, and to the Caroline Islands and part of the Ladrones, which Spain had sold to Germany. Japan took no part in the fighting in Europe, but was consulted at the peace table in 1919 when matters that did not solely concern Europe were under discussion.

Two ways were open for Japan to use in gaining control of Manchuria. If the Japanese were patient, they could gradually become dominant in Manchuria commercially through trade and migration. But this was too slow a process for the Japanese military leaders. Under the pretext of protecting the main railroad from Port Arthur north, Japan used troops against the Chinese in Manchuria (1931), and once started, did not stop until she overran not only Manchuria but the adjoining province of Jehol (rā'hō). When the Japanese bombarded a part of the great commercial city of Shanghai (1932), however, the Chinese defended themselves with such fierceness that Japan stopped hostilities.

Japan was simply waiting for time, however. In Manchoukuo it set up a government which knew its master's voice perfectly. Henry Pu Yi (poo yē), who, as a little boy, had been in name Emperor of China for a while, was installed as Emperor of Manchoukuo under the name of Kang Teh (1934). Later, after conquering the eastern parts of China, Japan tried the same trick

again by setting up a pretended Chinese government under Wang Ching Wei (1940). These things were done under pretense of defending the Far East against Europe and the United States.

Do you consider Japan's attack on Russia justified? What right did Theodore Roosevelt have to intervene in the Russo-Japanese War?

332. Japan and the World. — "Oh East is East, and West is West; and never the twain shall meet," said Kipling. White



A SCENE IN MODERN TOKYO

Wide World

Would you believe that this street and these buildings are in a section completely destroyed by a terrible earthquake in 1923?

people find many Chinese and Japanese men and women likable and admirable as individuals, but as races they seldom mix. Some have talked about the "Yellow Peril" — the possibility that the yellow people might sometime get together and overthrow the leadership of the white race in the world. Japan learned from the white nations many ways to do things better. She also learned their bad practices and could quote examples from history for

otherwise indefensible actions. She did not realize or did not care what westerners would think of her.

Japan became military in its thought. Japanese traditions laid so much stress on a fanatical patriotism and on one's duty to sacrifice everything in behalf of the emperor that army and navy men



JAPANESE SOLDIERS ON PARADE

© Press Illustrating Service

This particular group had just been received by the Emperor and presented with a flag for each regiment.

could easily get the people in general to support their policies. The Japanese knew they had accomplished much in seventy years, and perhaps for that reason were ready to do almost anything.

Japan built up her navy to be third in rank among the navies of the world, but still was not satisfied. She insisted that because of her island empire she needed more ships than most nations. Japan was one of the first members of the League of Nations and was recognized in the Covenant of the League as having the right to be permanently represented on the League Council. But when the League condemned her Chinese policy, she withdrew from the League. The fact that she did not know how Russia would act restrained her somewhat, but after Hitler's attack on Russia in 1941, she felt free to carry out her program of aggression.

Thus Japan made herself the strongest Asiatic power. The nations of western Europe and the New World no longer worry so much about a "yellow peril" from Asia as the "Red peril" from Soviet Russia. Japan could have gained not only the good will and cooperation of China but the respect of the rest of the world, if she had been content with gains through honest enterprise. But "they that take the sword shall perish by the sword."

A Chinese ruler once told representatives of a foreign country that he could see no good in associating with them because they could not possibly adopt Chinese customs anyway. Does that point of view seem queer or unreasonable? Are there any customs or ideas from the Orient which western nations could profitably adopt? Should the United States admit Mongolians as immigrants on the same terms as it admits white people? Why has the United States decided to admit the Chinese as immigrants and to accept them as citizens on the same basis as other people, when it was formerly so anxious to exclude them?

333. Light upon the Dark Continent. — For a long time Africa was the "Dark Continent" — outside of Egypt and the northern coast, of course. If you go a few miles west of the Nile or south of the Mediterranean far enough, you come to a vast desert. Even now there are only a few places where it has ever been crossed by white men. So it is not strange that Africa was not explored much from the north. On the east and on the west mountains follow closely along the shore a considerable part of the way. The only natural ways into the country are up the three great rivers — the Nile, Kongo, and Zambesi (zam bā'zē) — and there are falls in each of these. Plainly it is not an easy job to break into Africa!

When European countries undertook to trade with India, the East Indies, and the Far East by going around Africa, the region near the Cape of Good Hope was a convenient stopping place. The Dutch settled there first, and for a long time it was an important station on the Dutch routes of trade between their home and the East Indies. Portugal also established stations on the west coast and the east coast of Africa where her merchant vessels could stop on their way to and from India and other eastern trading centers.

England and France were nineteenth-century leaders in getting acquainted with Africa, but at opposite ends of the continent. During the Napoleonic Wars, when Holland was under Napoleon's

rule, England took away the Dutch Cape Colony and kept it when the wars were over. A few years later (1830) France began her African conquests by going across the Mediterranean to Algeria. In the century since that date France has made this part of her African territory much like France itself.



AFRICA AS MAPPED BY EUROPEANS IN 1795

You will find the location of certain places and peoples and the names of some districts somewhat different from those shown on the map facing page 658. How much of the continent would you judge from this map to have been completely unknown to Europeans in 1795?

Explorers rather than military conquerors, however, first told Europe and the rest of the world what the interior of Africa was like. Mungo Park, in the first years of the nineteenth century, went into West Africa, and visited the regions around the Niger which Europeans had heard of but had not seen, but lost his life in the adventure. If you want to read as exciting adventures as any "Tarzan" or other thriller ever pictured, get acquainted

with the stories of Baker, Speke, and others who went into Africa from the east coast or up the Nile. A Frenchman named Du Chaillu (dū shā yū') also had extraordinary experiences.

But the greatest of all African explorers were David Livingstone and Henry M. Stanley. Livingstone, a Scotch missionary, went



Ewing Galloway

DAVID LIVINGSTONE

The Scotchman who gave his life for Africa.

into the continent northeast of the present British possessions in South Africa. He was anxious to carry Christianity to the natives, and was deeply impressed with the need of getting rid of the African slave trade — "this open sore of the world," he called it. More than twenty years of his life were spent in Africa (1850–1873). He made friends with the native people and traveled 29,000 miles through regions that no white man had ever seen.

When, for a number of years, no word came from Livingstone, James Gordon Bennett, publisher of the *New York*

Herald, ordered a reporter named Henry M. Stanley to go out and find him. Stanley nearly crossed the continent from west to east before locating him. Even then Livingstone decided to stay in Africa instead of going back with Stanley. Livingstone died the next year (1873), and his body rests in Westminster Abbey with the great of England. Before it was carried away his native friends took out his heart and buried it under a tree in East Africa, for Africa, they thought, was the home of his heart's deepest interest.

Stanley found his way to Victoria Nyanza, one of the largest lakes in the world, visited other African waters, and went back to the western coast by following the Kongo River to its mouth. Perhaps you will find *Through Darkest Africa* at some points a little heavy reading, but this story of Stanley's tells some of the

most extraordinary experiences that were ever put on paper. Now the world had some definite idea of what central Africa is like.

"Open the Abbey doors and bear him in
To sleep with king and statesman, chief and sage,
The missionary come of weaver-kin,
But great by work that brooks no lower wage,
He needs no epitaph to guard a name
Which men shall prize while worthy work is known;
He lived and died for good — be that his fame;
Let marble crumble: this is Livingstone."

— From *Punch*

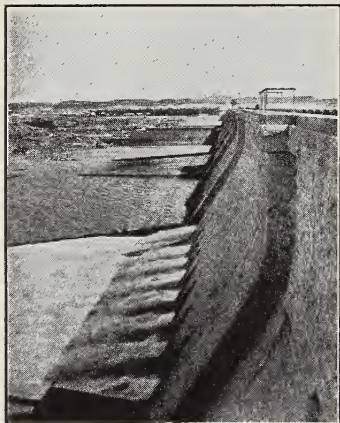
Which do you think would be the harder — exploring tropical lands like central Africa or the regions around the poles? Who might pay the bills for exploring expeditions — governments, private citizens, or societies? What reasons might they have for contributing to such objects? What do you suppose African natives who had never seen white men would think of explorers who came into their country?

334. Dividing Africa. — It was not long after Stanley's return from "Darkest Africa" before the powers of Europe were engaged in a grand rush to grab African territory. In a comparatively little while Africa was changed from a continent nine-tenths of which was independent to one almost to that extent under European flags. It was the last great field for Europe to cultivate in the development of trade and colonies.

France first extended her North African possessions eastward to include Tunis, much to the disgust of Italy, which had also thought of taking over this successor of ancient Carthage. France also took Madagascar. In 1882 Great Britain put Egypt under its protection, the better to safeguard the Suez Canal (§ 306). She tried to give Egypt good government and improve its prosperity. What Egypt needed, it was said, was "justice and water." The British arranged for the building of the great Aswan Dam across the Nile, which would store up the water and aid in distributing it evenly during the dry season. Native leaders who resisted the British in the upper Nile valley made some trouble, but they were suppressed (1898); and the French, who also formerly looked in

that direction, were induced to turn their attention to the western and central portions of Africa. To satisfy Egypt's desire for independence, a treaty in 1936 between Great Britain and Egypt allowed Great Britain to protect the Suez Canal, but in most other respects recognized Egypt as completely self-governing.

A noted Congress was held at Brussels in 1884 to discuss the numerous problems growing out of Europe's interest in Africa.



THE ASWAN DAM

Keystone

This is one of the great engineering works by which the Nile has been harnessed to serve better the land and people of Egypt.

Among the agreements made here was the forming of the Kongo Valley into the Kongo Free State, which was put under the supervision of the King of Belgium. This arrangement did not turn out well, for the king granted trade concessions to people who wanted to exploit the country and who allowed the natives to be sold as slaves or otherwise ill-treated. Finally the Kongo Free State was taken away from the Belgian king and put directly under the Belgian government. Since that change no scandals have been connected with the Kongo colony.

Then came Germany with its ambitions aroused and its confidence

strengthened under Bismarck's leadership. Why shouldn't Germany get in on this raid upon African territory? No sooner said than done, and a German Southwest Africa and a German East Africa soon appeared on the map of the continent. Germany also took considerable interest in Morocco, where France too was concerned. Conferences were held in 1906 and again in 1911 at Algeciras (āl je sē'ras) in Spain to deal with conditions affecting Morocco. Since England supported France's position there, Germany began to grow cool toward Great Britain.

British influence in South Africa was gradually extended to the

north over a considerable region which at first was looked upon as entirely unsuitable for white people to occupy (§ 347). Cecil Rhodes, prime minister of Cape Colony, was chiefly responsible for England's interest in this direction. One dream of his was of a "Cape to Cairo Railroad" which would go all the long distance from Cape Town to the capital of Egypt over territory that was either British or under British protection. Since his day, such a railroad does not seem so important, and, if there were one, its



PRIMITIVE AND MODERN AFRICAN LIVING CONDITIONS

Ewing Galloway

This mining camp in the Belgian Kongo has been constructed on sound sanitary principles, but you can recognize many traces of customs prevailing before the Belgians came.

northern terminus might be in Algeria. There is some talk now of a great auto road, from the Cape to the Mediterranean, but many would prefer to go by air.

Besides France, Great Britain, Portugal, Germany, Belgium, and Spain, one other country wanted something out of Africa — Italy. She looked in the direction of Abyssinia, where a Christian kingdom of black people had existed for centuries. As it was not easy to get at, other nations had not menaced its independence. Italy found that the Abyssinians were better able to look out for themselves than she thought; so Abyssinia remained independent

for a time, taking the name of Ethiopia. Italy did get territory north and southeast of Ethiopia, and through a war with Turkey in 1911 and 1912 took Tripoli (now called Libya) on the northern coast of Africa and some islands in the Aegean Sea and near Asia Minor. Under Mussolini (§ 385) Italy conquered Ethiopia in 1936, but lost Ethiopia and all of its other African territory in World War II.

Thus Europe extended its authority over the greater part of the second largest continent. Germany lost her African colonies through World War I. The events of the two World Wars left more than half the continent of Africa under French, British, Belgian, and Portuguese control. Boundaries are not definitely fixed for a large part of these colonial possessions.

May colonies today be more of a burden than a benefit? Would a civilized or an uncivilized colony be likely to be the more desirable? The United States had a representative present at the Congress of Brussels in 1884 and the Algeiras Congress in 1906, both of which dealt with questions concerning Africa. Why do you suppose the United States has had no part in the occupation of Africa? Do you think it will be interested in that continent in the future?

335. The Expansion of Civilization in North America.— In tracing the great movements of world history, we must not forget the Western Hemisphere. Many of the same movements and tendencies which determined the course of affairs in the Old World had their parallel in the New. Is there any nation, for example, whose territorial expansion is more profitable to study than that of the United States? The United States, unlike many other countries, for a long time had the chance to add territory next door to what it already possessed. The speed with which the United States reached through to the Pacific coast must have amazed Thomas Jefferson if he was watching it from the other world. Once he said that it might be 1000 years before the region as far west as the Mississippi was fully occupied. Yet it was in his own presidency (1803) that the United States purchased the vast Louisiana province. (See time-graphs on pages 390 and 484.)

Just half a century after the annexation of Louisiana, the main body of the territory of the United States as it now stands was wholly under the Stars and Stripes. The peninsula of Florida was



To adapt this map to later conditions, take note of: the transfer of German colonies to mandates under the British flag (except Kamerun, which was put under the French); the Moroccan coast around Tangier under Spanish protection; the rest of Morocco under French protection; and changes involving Italian possessions or conquests in eastern Africa.

annexed in 1819; and Texas, which had separated itself from Mexico and set up an independent republic, was added in 1845. Then came the settlement of a dispute with Great Britain over Oregon (1846) and the war with Mexico, which resulted in the acquisition of the land from New Mexico to California (1848). Another part of Arizona and New Mexico — the so-called Gadsden Purchase — was obtained from Mexico in 1853.

Settlers moved fast from the states near the Atlantic coast out into the Ohio and Mississippi valleys. When gold was discovered in California in 1848, there was a jump to the Pacific coast, but the region between the Great Plains and the coast filled up slowly. Canada, too, has a Pacific coast province, British Columbia, which was founded before some of the intervening territory was settled. The native Indians made some trouble for the early western pioneers, and the whites often treated the natives as unfairly as Europeans ever did the inhabitants of the lands that they forced under their control. That difficulty, however, appears to be over today, and all Indians within the borders of the United States are now considered citizens of the country. The purchase of Alaska from Russia in 1867 was the last acquisition of the United States on the American continent. Most people thought it was a poor buy, but it has paid for itself many times over.

In expanding beyond the continent, the United States has had to face problems very much like those which European countries found in their distant possessions. Hawaii was annexed in 1898 and has been made a territory. A war with Spain in 1898 added Puerto Rico, a few other little islands in the West Indies, the island of Guam, and the Philippines. Most of these were islands already fairly thickly settled, inhabited by people who spoke either Spanish or some non-European language. Little by little, Congress extended self-government to the Philippines. In 1935 the Commonwealth of the Philippines came into being, with Manuel Quezon (kā'zon) as President, followed in that office by Sergio Osmeña. Not even Japanese conquest in World War II prevented the recognition of the Philippine Republic on July 4, 1946, with a government similar to that of the United States.

The Samoan Islands in the South Pacific Ocean are fairly important for commerce and as possible naval stations. Since Great

Britain, Germany, and the United States all felt an interest in the islands, a threefold kind of control was set up in 1889. Ten years later Great Britain withdrew and let the islands be divided between the United States and Germany. Then in World War I Germany lost these islands as well as her other colonies, and the German part of Samoa was put under the care of New Zealand.

Which meant more to the progress of the world — the occupation of North American territory by the United States or the expansion of Russia over Siberia? Was the occupation of the continent of North America relatively easy?

336. Latin America under Spain and Portugal. — That part of the New World south of the United States from the Rio Grande to Cape Horn we often call Latin America. Why? Because most of the people in that region speak languages derived from the ancient Latin. From the early sixteenth century to the early nineteenth century Spain ruled all of Central and South America except Brazil, which belonged to Portugal. Silver and gold from Mexico and Peru helped to enrich the Spanish king's treasury.

Since Spain itself was an absolute monarchy of the most complete character, neither at home nor in the colonies were the people given any share in the government. The high positions in the colonies in both state and church were regularly handed to Spaniards who came over from Europe. Colonial governors and their subordinates were often dishonest, and graft and inefficient government were altogether too common.

The trade of Spanish colonies in the New World was closely controlled by the Spanish government. The old "mercantile" idea was in full bloom. For a long time goods carried in either direction moved in fleets which sailed at fixed dates and went only to such ports as Vera Cruz in Mexico and Porto Bello on the northern coast of South America. Even after permissions were granted to individual captains to sail by themselves, they had to go to certain ports, and people in those ports were not supposed to trade with anybody except those who were licensed by the Spanish government.

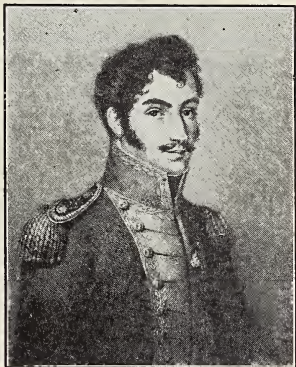
Yet even under this strict supervision revolutionary ideas sometimes found their way into the Latin-American colonies. The feeling between Spanish rulers and Spanish-born merchants and

traders on the one side and the Creoles, native-born people of European ancestry, on the other was often decidedly unpleasant. Those who had come to the New World to live permanently did not like to see all the honors and profits going to those who came from Europe for just a little while. The Spaniards did not care what the native Indian inhabitants thought about their government. In 1780 a descendant of the Incas who once ruled Peru started a revolution against Spanish rule, but it was crushed by the Spaniards with fearful cruelty.

Do you suppose bad government of colonies by European countries was more often the result of deliberate tyranny or of their not knowing any better? From what you know of commerce in the English colonies in North America before the Revolution, what comparisons would you make with conditions there and in the Spanish colonies at that time?

337. How Latin America Became Free.

— Without meaning to do so, Napoleon Bonaparte gave Latin America a push toward freedom. By putting his brother Joseph on the throne of Spain, he gave some of the discontented South Americans an excuse for revolting against the new government. Simon Bolivar (bō lē'var) became the foremost leader in the struggle for independence. He was most active in the northwestern part — in the countries which now are known as Venezuela, Colombia, Ecuador, Bolivia (named after him), and Peru. In the southern part of the continent the revolutionary movement was headed by José San Martín (hō sā san mar tēn'). This started in Buenos Aires in 1810. Under San Martín, Argentina and Chile successfully rose against their Spanish rulers, and he also helped in gaining control of Peru. So that no jealousy should prevent the success of the struggle for independence, San Martín very unselfishly gave up his leadership in favor of that of Bolivar.



SIMON BOLIVAR

He helped to gain freedom for South America.

The last important fighting occurred in 1824, but years before that Spanish authority had been overthrown in a considerable part of the continent. As in the Revolution in North America, there was considerable doubt at first whether a majority of the people really cared much about independence. Considerably more damage to property and life resulted from it than from the struggle in the North American continent. The upper social classes would have been well satisfied to stay under Spanish rule. The movement for independence was not limited to South America. Central America and Mexico also were drawn into it. Mexico dates her independence from 1821.

Brazil passed through an unusual kind of change. When Napoleon put the Spanish royal family off the throne, he also put Portugal under his brother's rule. The royal family of that country thought the safest place for them was in their American colony; so some of them went over to Brazil, and in 1822 the son of the Portuguese king declared himself emperor of Brazil. Brazil got along fairly well under her imperial government. Political leaders who thought they would have more chance for office under a republic finally worked up a revolution, and in 1889 the old emperor, Dom Pedro II, was asked to leave, and a republic was established.

Is there anyone whom you might properly call the George Washington of South America? Do you suppose it was harder for the South American countries to get their independence than for the United States?

338. The Monroe Doctrine and Latin America. — It may have been the announcement of the Monroe Doctrine that saved the independence of Latin America. Certainly the decision made by President Monroe and Secretary Adams (§ 255) made the Holy Alliance hesitate about helping the Spanish king, Ferdinand VII, to get back his American colonies.

Three times the United States Government has used the Monroe Doctrine as the basis for an important act affecting Latin America. When Napoleon III proposed to set up a French Empire in Mexico (§ 261) during the American Civil War, he defied the Doctrine, but this "empire" failed as soon as the Civil War was over and the United States government could threaten to take some action. In 1895 when a boundary dispute was going on between Great Britain and Venezuela, President Cleveland declared that under

the Monroe Doctrine the United States should make a decision about it and enforce it if necessary. The controversy was settled by referring it to a special board whose decision was largely in favor of Great Britain. In 1902, when Venezuela was not paying interest on its bonds, the German government thought of seizing some Venezuelan port. President Theodore Roosevelt objected to this and Germany gave up the idea. President Wilson thought of the Monroe Doctrine as so important that he had a provision for safeguarding it put into the League Covenant (1919).

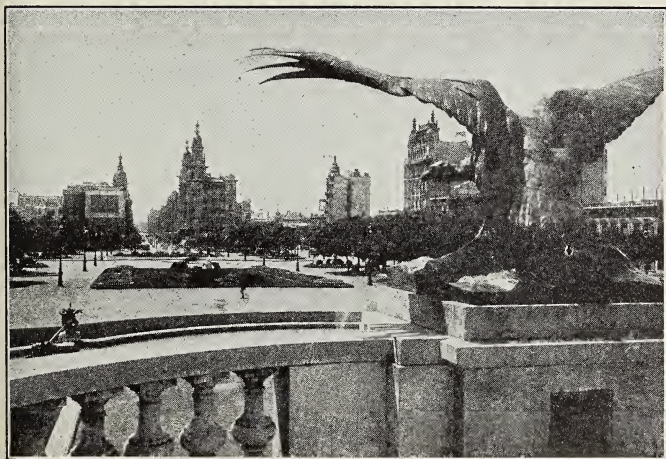
Today (1949) the three Guianas (British, Dutch, and French) are the only South American territory under European flags; in World War II the Dutch colony (Surinam) was defended by troops from the United States with the consent of the Dutch Government-in-Exile. Great Britain also has in Central America British Honduras, and in Canada she has almost an empire in itself. These three countries also own several islands in the West Indies.

Sometimes the Monroe Doctrine has been as much of a burden as a benefit to the United States. President Theodore Roosevelt announced the so-called "Roosevelt corollary" to the Doctrine which implied that if we did not allow other countries to interfere in Latin America, we should see that no excuse for interference was given. At certain times our government took charge of the finance of such countries as Haiti, San Domingo, and Nicaragua, and even sent the Marines there in order to keep things quiet.

The Latin American countries have not always been enthusiastic over the Doctrine. The United States was said to be "the Colossus" of the North, trying to keep other countries out of South America so as to dominate it ourselves. Agents of Germany and Italy encouraged this idea. President Franklin Roosevelt emphasized the "Good Neighbor Policy," and a marked change for the better in the Latin-American attitude toward us has appeared. At a conference at Havana (1940) the so-called Act of Havana declared that no European possessions in the New World should pass into the control of an unfriendly power. A treaty for Inter-American Defense was drawn up in 1947, which drew an imaginary line on the map of the Western Hemisphere all around the two continents, including Greenland, and provided that the defense of this entire region was the joint responsibility of all the American nations.

Do you suppose if you lived in a South American country, you would think well of the Monroe Doctrine? How much responsibility really belongs to the United States for making smaller countries of the New World behave themselves?

339. Progress and Problems in Latin America. — Democracy has not meant much to some people in Latin America. Elections were sometimes like fights between two little armies, and the leader who lost the election might start a revolution. The form of the United States Constitution was sometimes imitated rather than



IN BUENOS AIRES

Publishers' Photo

South America's largest city has beautiful plazas and avenues. This is the Plaza de Mayo.

the spirit. Brazil has a federal government, but for fifteen years it was ruled by Getulio Vargas, who was really a dictator, though he was in sympathy with the Allies in World War II. After an election late in 1945, Eurico Gaspar Dutra became President.

Three countries, often called the ABC Powers — Argentina, Brazil, and Chile — have made great progress and have kept peace and order within their borders a good share of the time. Argentina is one of the greatest sheep- and cattle-raising nations of the world and also grows much wheat. Brazil produces much more coffee

than any other country. Rubber came originally from Brazil, but later the Far East was the principal source. Chile has supplied a large share of the world's nitrate for fertilizers and explosives. Venezuela, Colombia, and Bolivia have valuable oil deposits. Peru still mines much silver, and Bolivia both silver and tin.

Transportation has been a problem in much of South America. Mountains are so close to the western seacoast that it is almost impossible to construct extensive railroad systems, and even yet pack animals carry a considerable quantity of freight. Even Brazil has not built great railroads, for the interior of the country is either a vast jungle or is undeveloped for other reasons. Argentina has forty per cent of all the railroad mileage of South America. A transcontinental line was built from the coast of Chile to Buenos Aires. Floods interrupted its use for a time, but it is again in operation. Airlines have been developed to a notable extent. Some of these were operated by German and Italian interests, but now air transportation is mostly under American management.

South Americans were slow to realize the abundance of their natural resources, and so was Uncle Sam. As a result, much of the South American market was controlled for a considerable time by the British and Germans. The Germans operated much of its trade through barter, requiring the South American customers to accept German manufactured goods in exchange for South American products. Argentina has received Italian immigrants of high quality, and Brazil and Chile a good many Germans. Spanish and Portuguese immigrants have also found themselves at home in South America. Not so many Englishmen have gone to South America as to Canada and the United States, but their influence has been considerable.

In much of Latin America democracy is lacking socially as well as politically. Planters and other owners of ranches and large estates form an upper class. Between them and most Indians and Negroes there is a great gulf. The peons, peasant workers who do not own the land they work and are almost like serfs of medieval times, have furnished serious problems, especially in Mexico.

Outside of the ABC Powers and Uruguay and a few large cities elsewhere, education has been neglected. Both Mexico and Peru had universities before Harvard was founded, but too often in

Latin-American countries only a small per cent of the people had any kind of education. Lately much thought has been given to exchanges of university students and teachers between the United States and some of the South American countries.

Argentina, with its capital, Buenos Aires, the largest of all Latin-American cities, has developed some features which attract favor-



A SCENE IN THE AMAZON VALLEY

Ewing Galloway

South America is a continent of contrasts. It has a few large and progressive cities. Here is an outpost in the lower valley of the greatest river in the world.

able attention from visitors from other countries. Juan Peron, who got himself elected President, is practically a dictator. His wife, Eva, has gained popularity with certain groups at home and has obtained publicity for his administration elsewhere.

Argentina and Chile have given one fine example of international friendliness. On a high point in the mountains between the two countries there has been built an immense statue of Christ. This *Christ of the Andes*, they declare, symbolizes the friendly relations between the two republics and is a testimony that they will never go to war with one another. Bolivia and Paraguay, however, got into a bloody war from 1932 to 1935 over the region known as

Gran Chaco. Ecuador and Peru have also argued over the location of the boundary line between them. Both of these disputes have been settled, but disagreements are still possible.

The nearness of Mexico to the United States has made little difference in the prosperity or enterprise of that country, partly



Ewing Galloway

THE CHRIST OF THE ANDES

This statue, on the boundary line between Argentina and Chile, bears this inscription: "Sooner shall these mountains crumble into dust than Argentina and Chile shall violate the peace they have pledged at the feet of Christ the Saviour."

the 1920's, however, Mexico gradually became more peaceful. Under President Lazaro Cardenas it adopted socialistic policies and tried to get rid of foreign influence. Foreigners were forbidden to acquire title to land or to conduct schools, and the government seized oil properties and other lands owned by foreigners.

because the Mexican War of 1846-1848 left a very unpleasant feeling on the part of Mexicans toward the country to the north of them. During the long presidency of Porfirio Diaz, however, the investment of foreign money in developing Mexico's resources was encouraged. Beginning with 1877, except for one four-year period, he had himself elected president term after term until he served nearly thirty years. We cannot be sure that these repeated elections proved that the people liked him, because on election day Diaz had soldiers at the polls and it was not safe to vote for anybody else. Whatever his faults, Diaz did maintain peace and order for a surprisingly long period.

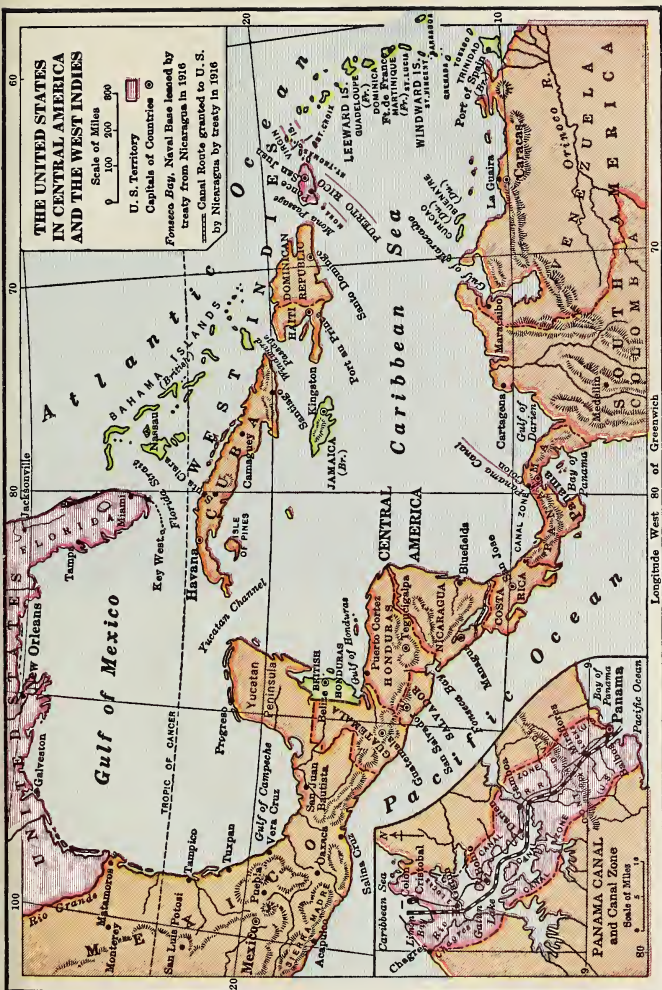
Diaz, overthrown by a revolution, had to leave Mexico in 1911. For several years the country was in disorder. In

Scale of Miles

U. S. Territory

Capitals of Countries ©

Fonseca Bay, Naval Base leased by treaty from Nicaragua in 1916



Under Presidents Avila Camacho (1940) and Miguel Aleman (1946), relations with the United States have been very friendly. Mexico joined the Allies in World War II.



A SCENE IN MEXICO CITY

© Publishers' Photo

This shows the Plaza de la Constitución and the Cathedral. Mexico City is considered one of the most beautiful cities in the world.

James Bryce, though he usually sympathized heartily with democratic ideas in government, said it was a mistake to try to establish a democratic form of government in South America. Do you agree with him? What parts of South America would you be most interested to visit? Quito (kē'tō), the capital of Ecuador, is situated almost exactly on the equator; yet its climate is much cooler and more even than that of many parts of the United States. How can that be? Is it possible to make general statements that will be true about the continent as a whole or even about a single country?

340. The United States in Central America and the West Indies. — Any serious disorder in Central America and the West Indies affects American business and trade. Cuba is only a little way from Florida. The bad government given Cuba by the Spanish authorities and the rebellion started in the island in 1895

made things awkward for Americans who had money invested in sugar and tobacco plantations. These facts, and the disgust of Americans at the cruel methods used in trying to suppress the rebellion, combined to cause the United States Congress to declare war on Spain in 1898.

Puerto Rico, gained through this short and one-sided war, seems to be permanently included in the territory of the United States. Somewhat to the surprise of governments that would not have done so, the United States helped Cuba to set up an independent government in 1902. For over thirty years it retained the right to intervene in Cuba to see that order was maintained. It intervened twice and was tempted to do so more often. Yet policing bankrupt or disorderly little countries such as San Domingo, Haiti, or Nicaragua has been at times a thankless task — “the white man’s burden” again — and it is safe to say that Uncle Sam has no desire to make a permanent practice of it.

The Panama Canal will maintain a lasting interest for the United States in Central America. Philip II, in whose reign such a project was first proposed, is reported to have objected on the ground that the Scriptures declare: “What God has joined together, let not man put asunder.” The gold rush to California pushed the proposition one step forward, but the canal did not become a reality until the time of Theodore Roosevelt. Much to the disgust of Colombia, he acquired the present Panama Canal Zone in 1904 from the state of Panama, after Panama had revolted from Colombia and declared itself independent. As we have already seen (§ 306), the canal was opened to traffic in 1914. To safeguard American control of the canal, the United States obtained from Denmark in 1917 the Virgin Islands, east of Puerto Rico, for \$25,000,000. In 1921 Colombia received a belated payment of \$25,000,000 for the loss of territory resulting from the Panama Revolution. Colombia, Costa Rica, and Uruguay have been looked upon as three really democratic countries. But both Colombia and Costa Rica have had domestic disorders recently.

How much better off do you think Cuba is as an independent country than it would have been under Spanish rule? Is it the duty of the United States to feel more responsible for maintaining peace in Central America than in South America?

341. The Progress of Pan-Americanism. — The promotion of a common interest among the republics of the New World and the encouragement of friendly coöperation among them is often referred to as *Pan-Americanism*. James G. Blaine, who twice served the United States as Secretary of State, was deeply interested in this undertaking. At his suggestion there was held in Washington in 1889 the first of a series of Pan-American conferences attended by representatives of most of the New World republics. To carry on their joint activities, the Bureau of American Republics was established (1890), which later changed its name to the Pan-American Union. It circulates information about the various members of the Union and provides means for conferences at which the representatives of different countries talk freely. Cities which have entertained these conferences include Mexico (1901), Rio de Janeiro (1906), Buenos Aires (1910), Santiago (1923), Havana (1928), Montevideo (1933), Buenos Aires (1936), Lima (1938), Havana (1940), Mexico (1945), Bogota (1948). The President of the United States has attended some of these.

As they have a perfect right to do, some Latin American countries have not always followed the lead of the United States in all respects. Several of them, for instance, entered the League of Nations when the United States did not. In looking out for their economic interests, they have sometimes found better customers in Great Britain and Germany than in the United States. This is especially the case with Argentina, which has natural advantages for producing wheat and cattle. At the conference in Bogota in 1948, the Organization of American States was established, which includes all the members of the Pan-American Union with that agency as its active central headquarters. Its purpose is to encourage the New World countries to act together effectively.

American oil companies did not like it when properties on which they had spent much money were seized by Latin-American governments. Even little Panama (1947) refused to agree promptly when the United States wished to lease points in its territory for the defense of the Canal. The Pan-American highway, which has been planned so as to make it possible for autos to go all the way from the Rio Grande to Chile and Argentina, has not yet been finished.

Is South America likely to influence world politics more hereafter than it has influenced them in the past? Is a rise in prestige and self-confidence among the Latin-American republics likely to weaken the Monroe Doctrine?

342. The Spread of the British Empire. — Almost one-fourth of the land area of the world and almost one-fourth of all the people have been under the British flag. No other empire in history has equaled the British in extent or distribution over the face of the earth. Some of the Empire has been held by compulsion. Other parts, thousands of miles away from England, are kept in only by sentiment finer than spider's silk but stronger than steel. Though one may find fault with some British policies, almost every part of the British Empire, except perhaps Ireland, has benefited greatly from British rule. Partly because of the strain upon Britain brought by World War II, she no longer cares to try to keep under her control peoples who are unwilling to stay there.

Use the map following page 638 to locate the parts of Great Britain's far-flung Empire.

Great Britain has succeeded well in adapting her policies to varying conditions. She did not force all the American colonies of the eighteenth century to have exactly the same kind of government, and she has learned much about colonizing since then. She permits almost every imaginable kind of government.

The *dominions*, for all practical purposes, are completely self-governing — Canada, Australia, the South African Union, New Zealand, Ceylon, and, for the time being at least, India and Pakistan. The *crown colonies*, which include the Bermudas, Jamaica, British Guiana, Kenya (in Africa), and Singapore (in southeast Asia), are governed much as the royal colonies were in American colonial times. Other possessions which do not seem ready for a large amount of self-government, as the Camaroons in Western Africa and Papua in the East Indies, may be held in trusteeship under the United Nations.

Many of the smaller possessions are of chief value in protecting England's far-flung commerce or as stations for the service of the British navy. In the Mediterranean, Great Britain has Gibraltar at the entrance, the island of Malta in the middle, and Cyprus in

the eastern part. Not far from the American coast are the Bermudas, the Bahamas, Jamaica, and Trinidad; and in South America is British Guiana. Many small islands in the South Pacific Ocean are under the British flag directly, or are looked after by the Dominion of Australia or New Zealand.

Once we might have included in the Empire the lands put under British care as mandates by the League of Nations after it was



A SCENE IN MODERN CAIRO

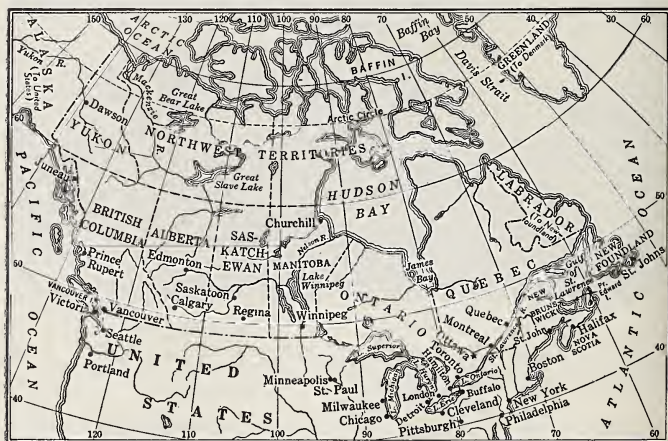
This is the largest city in Africa, with more people than Cleveland. Some parts of it are as attractive as any European or American city. The nearness of British authority may be responsible for its well-being.

organized. One of these, Iraq, became self-governing in 1935, and Transjordan (now Jordan) did likewise in 1936. Some such regions have been glad to accept British advice at times, but today may be more anxious to display their independence.

Are there any good reasons for making a distinction between the dominions in the British Empire and the smaller colonies as to form of government? Does the United States exert influence over any regions that are not actually a part of our possessions?

343. How Canada Took Form. — Nowhere is England's genius for keeping the good will of distant possessions better shown than in Canada. This great dominion includes about one-fourth of the entire British Empire and is larger than the United States with Alaska added. A large proportion of the people of Canada are British in their ancestry, but much of the province of Quebec is unmistakably French. Throughout a great part of Quebec one

sees and hears the French language, and the Catholic religion claims the majority of its people, though the rest of Canada is overwhelmingly Protestant. Many Loyalists in the United States during the Revolution were so dissatisfied with its outcome or were made so uncomfortable by the victorious party that they left "the States" for Canada. About 30,000 of them went to Nova Scotia and New Brunswick and about 10,000 to Ontario. Here they received generous grants of land from the government.



THE DOMINION OF CANADA

In 1791 Canada was divided into Upper Canada and Lower Canada, now Ontario and Quebec respectively. Discontent with the government led in 1837 to actual rebellion against British authority. To find out what was wrong and to recommend what should be done about it, the British government sent over Lord Durham. His wise report, made in 1839, which recommended a considerably larger share of self-government than Canada already had, was accepted by Parliament. Little by little earlier laws restricting trade and commerce were done away with, and Canada was allowed to make its own tariff laws and to get along without any British troops for protection.

One of the most notable pieces of legislation by the British

Parliament is the act of 1867 establishing the Dominion of Canada. Ontario, Quebec, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia were the first provinces in this federal union. Since then, Prince Edward Island, Manitoba, Saskatchewan, Alberta, British Columbia, and Newfoundland have joined the union. Yukon Territory and the Northwest Territories are also under Canadian authority. They are vast in area but have a comparatively small part of the whole population of Canada. The Act of 1867 is still the constitution of Canada, but the British Parliament has authorized Canada to make changes in it.

Why did Canada take no particular interest in the American Revolution? Does the history of Canada indicate that English people as a whole are natural believers in self-government?

344. The Dominion of Canada Today. — The government of Canada is like that of both the United States and Great Britain. Canada is a federal union like the United States; but in Canada powers not definitely given to the provinces are possessed by the Dominion government, while in the United States the relation is the other way around. The king sends over a governor-general who is ornamental rather than necessary. He is simply the king's official representative and makes no attempt to dictate how the Canadians shall govern themselves.

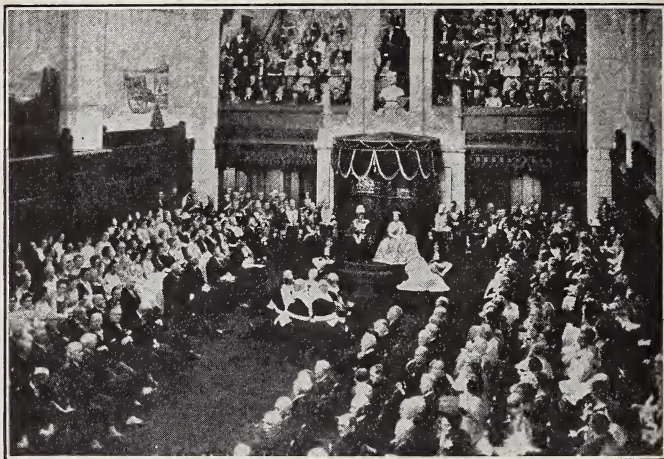
The government of the Dominion has two houses in its Parliament, a Senate made up of members appointed for life by the British crown upon nomination by the governor-general and his cabinet, and a House of Commons elected by the voters of each province in proportion to population. The British Cabinet system prevails, with a Prime Minister who holds office while his party controls the House of Commons. William L. Mackenzie King, who served as Prime Minister more than twenty years, retired in 1948 in favor of Louis St. Laurent. Each of the provinces has its own government, with a cabinet system much like that of the Dominion.

Since Canada has been somewhat particular about admitting immigrants, fewer different races are found among its people than in the United States. Canada shows a very high average of wealth and business activity in proportion to its population. Two great railroad systems are of particular importance — the Canadian

676 World-Wide Advance of European Civilization

Pacific and the Canadian National. Both of them reach clear across the continent. The Canadian Pacific is a privately managed company, and the Canadian National is under government direction. The Canadian Pacific also operates steamship lines that sail to Europe in one direction and to Asia in the other.

Canada and the United States have given the world a good example of friendly relations. There is no hostile fort or gun



KING GEORGE VI AND QUEEN ELIZABETH ON A CANADIAN THRONE

For the first time in history, a British ruler presided at a session of a Dominion Parliament, in the Parliament Building at Ottawa, Canada, May 9, 1939.

along the entire 3000-mile boundary line. After 1817 there were no warships on the Great Lakes, until in 1941 the two countries agreed that they might build them for their mutual defense. One evidence of their close association is the Alaska Highway, over 1600 miles long, built in 1942 by United States engineers and soldiers, from a point in British Columbia to Fairbanks in Alaska. Though a British dominion, the Canadian people now speak of the citizenship they possess as being "Canadian," and not merely British.

Newfoundland, which is the oldest of all British possessions, because England has claimed it ever since John Cabot came over in

1497, for many years declined to join the Dominion of Canada. The French also claimed it for a while, but gave it up by the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713. For years Newfoundland governed itself as a separate dominion, but in 1933, because of financial trouble, put itself under the care of Britain. After this situation was cleared up, the voters of Newfoundland, late in 1948, decided to become a province of Canada. Most of Labrador has been under the government of Newfoundland, and boundary disputes between Canada and Labrador have been settled largely in favor of Newfoundland.

Would Canada have done better to have encouraged immigration the way the United States did for a long time?

345. The Story of Australia. — The Dutch were the first to see Australia. A Dutch seaman named Tasman visited the coast of the island in 1642; but he did not know how large Australia is, and for some time people did not know whether the stories of a new continent in that part of the world were true. Since the Dutch did nothing to make good any claims they might have acquired, the way was left open for the English to take Australia after the English explorer, Captain James Cook, landed there. The settlement of Australia by Englishmen really began with the sending out of a shipload of convicts from England, who landed in 1788 at Botany Bay, in what is now New South Wales. For about fifty years England sent convicts to Australia, many of whom settled down and became decent and useful citizens. England also began to urge free citizens to go there, offering inducements in the form of land and farm tools. Finally those who came of their own accord petitioned that the practice of sending convicts might be stopped.

Sheep-raising proved to be particularly suited to Australia, and today it produces more wool than any other region in the world. After gold was discovered in 1851, a rush to Australia set in much like the pouring of the "Forty-niners" into California. Australia still produces considerable gold, though much less than formerly.

Much of the interior and northern parts of the island is either a vast desert or otherwise unsuited for white people to occupy. As a result, this vast dominion, a continent in itself almost as large as Europe, has fewer people than the city of London. At that, two Australian cities, Sydney and Melbourne, have 1,000,000 or more

people each. Five separate colonies grew up in Australia — New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, South Australia, and West Australia — and off to the south was the separate island colony of Tasmania, named after the Dutch explorer who first saw it.

After several years' discussion the English Parliament passed an act establishing the Commonwealth of Australia, and on the first day of the twentieth century this new government came into



AUSTRALIA AND NEW ZEALAND

being. Australia is a federation still more like the United States than is Canada. Each of the five colonies on the island of Australia, along with Tasmania, became a state with somewhat the same place in the federal union as is possessed by the states of the United States. There is a Parliament composed of a Senate to which each state sends six members, and a House of Representatives in which the states are represented approximately in proportion to population. Each state has its own government, similarly organized. The British cabinet system prevails, however, in the Australian government and in the states. There is no president. As in Canada,

a governor-general represents the British crown. Like the United States, Australia built a new city, Canberra, for its capital.

Australians are determined that their continent shall be a white man's land. They permit only white immigrants, most of whom have come from England. They have set up a government system of invalid and old-age pensions and have tried to prevent labor



A SCENE IN MELBOURNE

Publishers' Photo

This capital of the state of Victoria is the second largest city in Australia. How thoroughly up-to-date it looks!

troubles by laws requiring the compulsory arbitration of labor disputes. The Commonwealth Arbitration Court has established minimum wage standards which would seem high in most of the United States and England. The method of secret voting at elections, commonly known as the Australian ballot, has now been adopted in many other countries. Nineteen out of every twenty voters commonly participate in elections; perhaps this is because a voter may be fined if he does not vote. The greater part of the railways of the country are owned and operated by the states or the federal government.

Would you think convicts would be likely to make good colonizers? It has been said that Australians are more like the people of the United

States than any other people. Is there any reason why this might be true? Compare the latitude of Sydney and Melbourne south of the equator with some corresponding cities in Europe and the United States in north latitude. What kind of weather is Australia likely to have about Christmas time?

346. The Dominion of New Zealand. — As far to the east from Australia as Boston is from Chicago, is another British dominion, New Zealand, which consists of two good-sized islands and several smaller ones. With a total area somewhat less than that of Great Britain and Ireland and about equal to the state of Colorado, these islands stretch from north to south as far as from Minneapolis to Memphis. The first white men to see New Zealand were the Dutch. Later the English took it over, and in 1840 made it a separate colony. Now it is a dominion.

New Zealand is governed by a legislative council appointed by the dominion government and a house of representatives elected by the voters. Women have voted in New Zealand since 1893. New Zealand has undertaken many measures for the social improvement of its people. It has a generous system of old-age pensions, an unemployment board to assist those who are out of jobs, and a high order of legislation affecting conditions in factories and other matters pertaining to the well-being of workers. Perhaps never in the world has there been a more nearly even distribution of wealth and opportunity than in New Zealand. There seem to be few very rich or very poor. The telegraph and telephone and most of the railroads are operated by the government. Both New Zealand and Australia in their 1949 elections indicated that their people do not care to go any further toward socialism.

Can you think of any reasons why New Zealand has dared to pass social and industrial laws to a greater extent than most other countries? Would you like to live in New Zealand?

347. British and Boers in South Africa. — Until after the Napoleonic Wars most of the people living in the Cape Colony at the southern end of Africa were Dutch, but when the islands passed under the British flag, Englishmen began to come there to settle. This immigration did not please the Boers, as the Dutch inhabitants were called, and they were further dissatisfied with

some of the laws passed by the British, especially those affecting the slaves held by the Boers. Though the act of Parliament in 1833 which abolished slavery throughout the British Empire gave slave owners part compensation for their slaves, the Boers were discontented.

Beginning with 1834, the movement known as the "Great Trek" started. Thousands of Boer farmers with their families, farm wagons, and herds moved northward into country previously unsettled by white people. As a result of these movements, two Boer republics were established: the Orange Free State near the Orange River and the Republic of 'Transvaal', north of the Vaal River, which kept themselves practically independent for many years.

In 1884 rich gold fields were discovered in the Transvaal. Foreigners, chiefly British, flocked into the country in such numbers that they soon outnumbered the Boers. The newcomers, called Uitlanders (ūt'landers), paid the greater part of the taxes of the Transvaal and demanded public improvements and reforms in government. The Boers refused to grant the demands of the Uitlanders and made it harder than ever for them to become citizens or obtain the right to vote. The government of Cape Colony tried in vain to induce President Kruger of the Transvaal — Oom Paul, his people called him — to permit changes in policy. The situation was made worse when a band of armed men from Cape Colony headed by a man named Jameson invaded the Transvaal but was captured by the Boer army (1895).

Finally war broke out between the British and the Transvaal Republic, which was joined by its neighbor, the Orange Free State. The British did not realize what good fighters the Boers were, and at first the Boers had considerably the better of the conflict. Then the British poured troops into South Africa under the lead of Lord Roberts and General Kitchener and, after three years of fighting (1899–1902), were finally completely successful. The two Dutch republics lost their independence and had to come into the British Empire.

A master mind, Cecil Rhodes, prime minister of Cape Colony for many years, thought he saw in the region north toward the heart of Africa great possibilities for development. A private corporation known as the British South Africa Company was

chartered to undertake this enterprise. Part of this region north of the Transvaal is valuable for raising corn, tobacco, and cotton; and other parts of it are rich in metals and minerals. Later the British South Africa Company gave up to the government its authority in these regions, and two districts, Southern Rhodesia (rō dē'shia) and Northern Rhodesia, were established. Both of these are now crown colonies, and the white inhabitants of the colonies have a voice in their government.



Ewing Galloway

CECIL RHODES

The man who added vast dominions to the British Empire.

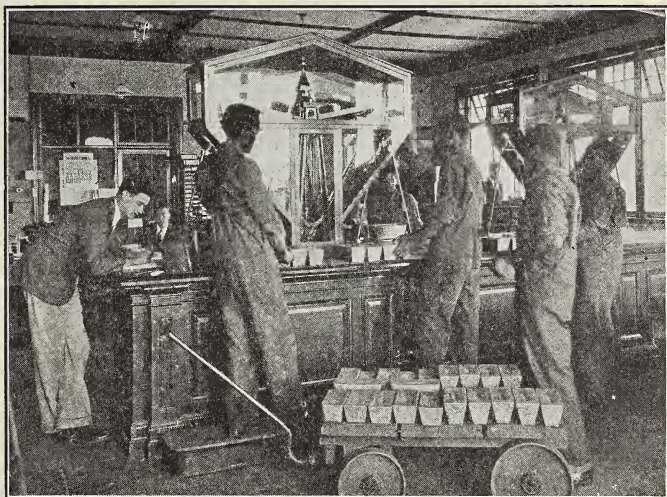
Cecil Rhodes aspired to make South Africa one of the jewels of the British crown and to form a union of the various districts, but he died in 1902 before this was brought into being. One may rightly look upon him as a nineteenth-century successor to Clive in India and Pitt in America as a builder of the British Empire. In the hope of developing friendliness and understanding between the British people and the English-speaking peoples of North America, in his will Rhodes provided for the setting up of scholarships under which outstanding young men from the United States and the chief British colonies may attend Oxford University, which was his own alma mater.

Do you think the Boers were justified in making their Great Trek so as to get away from the British? Do you approve of the policies of the Boers which brought on the war of 1899-1902? On what terms are the Rhodes scholarships offered today?

Use the map facing page 658 for sections 347 and 348, but mentally correct the map by remembering that the German colonies of 1914 are now under the British flag.

348. The Union of South Africa. — With their brave opponents now under their control, the British leaders showed to them the most generous treatment. The Boers were allowed to use their own language in schools and courts, and the British contributed a large sum of money to help repair the damage done by the war and to aid the Boer farmers in getting re-established.

In 1910 came the formation of the Union of South Africa. This includes the four provinces of the Cape of Good Hope (once Cape Colony), Natal (na täl'), Transvaal, and Orange Free State. They are united not as a federation like Canada or Australia, but rather as a centralized government with the power of the provinces limited to local matters. The parliament is made up of



WEIGHING GOLD IN SOUTH AFRICA

Publishers' Photo

These gold bars are made from the precious metal taken out of one of the mines in the Transvaal.

a Senate and a House of Assembly, most of whose members are elected by the people. There are a prime minister and cabinet after the British model. Its constitution was accepted by the British Parliament after being worked out by leaders in South Africa. Three former Boer leaders have been Prime Ministers. Jan Christiaan Smuts was respected for his efforts to promote world peace, but in 1948 he was defeated for re-election by the head of a party opposed to close cooperation with the British.

More than half the gold of the world comes from South Africa, mostly from the Transvaal. The Cape of Good Hope, Transvaal,

and the Orange Free State all produce immense quantities of diamonds. Fruit-growing and the raising of farm animals also are important.

South Africa has a difficult race problem. There are probably between three and four times as many black people as white in the South African Union. The whites, whether Boer or British, have wanted to keep political power in their hands and to maintain social separation between whites and blacks. Serious disorder has occurred between native peoples and some who have come to South Africa from India. The black natives and the dark immigrants from India are under the domination of the Anglo-Saxon whites.

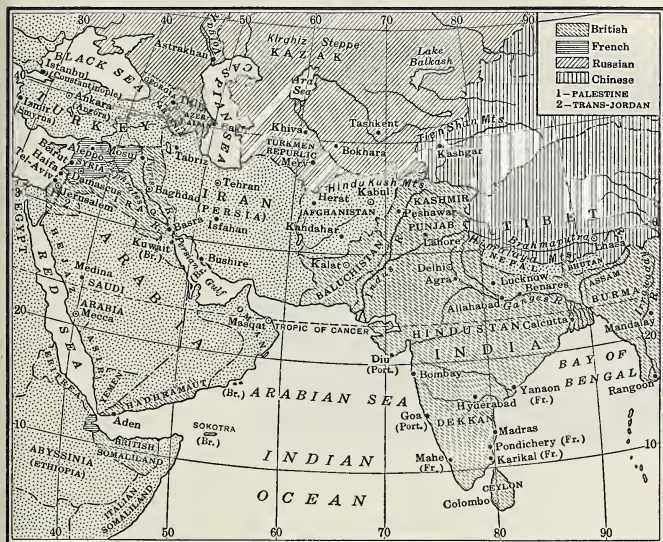
The Union of South Africa has charge of what was once German Southwest Africa, under a mandate from the League of Nations. Other colonies, governed by a commissioner representing the British authority in South Africa, lie just outside of the boundaries of the Union. Among these is Basū'to Land, which is set apart wholly for Negroes and where they have made the greatest progress of any native Africans.

Since England itself makes no distinction between black and white people, why do you suppose difficulty has arisen in South Africa? If the British had won the struggle with their North American colonies, do you think they would have treated them as generously as they treated the Boers? Point out contrasts and likenesses in the formation of the dominion governments in Canada, Australia, and South Africa.

349. How England Set Up an Empire in India. — Now we must turn to India and Ireland, two parts of the British Empire where British rule has never been so popular as in some other places. England came to India in the guise of either trader or conqueror. Here was a country with a known history older than that of England, with people perfectly satisfied with their habits and customs, however crude and dirty they seemed to westerners. Here was an immense population — amounting to perhaps 380,000,000 today, seven times as many as in England and nearly three times as many as in the United States.

Great Britain never compelled every part of India to submit outwardly and completely to British rule. Sometimes she has been willing that native princes should rule if they kept on good terms with British representatives. The British government

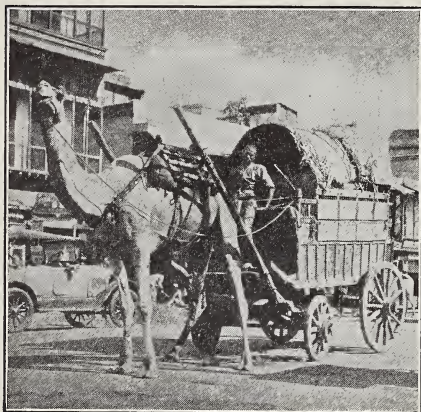
itself, before 1857, did not rule much of India directly. Most of the responsibility for managing both government and trade rested upon the British East India Company, that great and famous institution chartered by Queen Elizabeth and sometimes nicknamed "John Company."



SOUTHERN AND WESTERN ASIA BEFORE WORLD WAR II

The year 1857 was a terrible but memorable one in India, for then the frightful Sepoy Mutiny broke out. It shows some of the very embarrassing problems — religious, racial, sanitary, and every other kind — with which the British have had to deal in India. About this time a kind of greased cartridge was introduced into the army in India, the end of which the soldiers had to bite off before it was put into a gun. Now by far the greater part of the soldiers in India were natives called Sepoys, who included both Hindus and Mohammedans. To the Hindu the cow is a sacred animal; to the Mohammedan the hog is an unclean thing. These soldiers thought that in touching the grease of this new cartridge

they would either be disloyal to their religion or would defile themselves. With this as an excuse, much of the valley of the Ganges rose in revolt against the British. Terrible cruelties were imposed upon Britishers or British sympathizers who fell into their hands, and the British authorities retaliated by harsh punishments. At the cost of much money, distress, and life, the British suppressed



Publishers' Photo

A CAMEL CART AT DELHI

Delhi, the capital of India, has both a new and an old city. This style of transportation is of much interest to travelers.

the mutiny; and when the rebellion was over, the British were in a much stronger position than ever. All political control in India was taken away from the East India Company, and the British government became entirely responsible for the general administration of affairs in India (1858).

Since the suppression of the Sepoy Mutiny, India has been at peace a good share of the time. There have been some wars

on the frontier with half-barbarous tribes from Burma and Afghanistan. For a while Russia's ambitious moves caused British statesmen in India to lie awake nights. To please the natives of India, the title of Empress of India was bestowed upon Queen Victoria in 1877. When George V became king, he made a special trip to India to be crowned Emperor (1911) and then announced that the capital was to be removed from Calcutta to Delhi (del'hī), a former capital. It is now generally called New Delhi.

To comprehend the long stretch of India's history refer to the time-graphs on pages 54, 59, 109, 113, 203, 292, and 484.

Do you think Great Britain deliberately set out to conquer India or did British control come about through events at least partly unforeseen?

Why would it be imagined that giving the British monarch the title of Empress or Emperor of India would do any good to the British cause there?

For geographical facts about India, see the maps on pages 427 and 685.

350. India, Pakistan, and Burma. — At the present time about all we can be sure of in regard to this vast area is that the situation there, as far as government is concerned, is going to be different from what it has been in the last hundred years. Here is an area about half the size of the United States with Alaska. More than one-third of it was formerly governed by native princes under British protection, and the rest was in provinces directly under British rule. A law-making body of two houses met at New Delhi where the British Viceroy, the chief official for the country, lived.

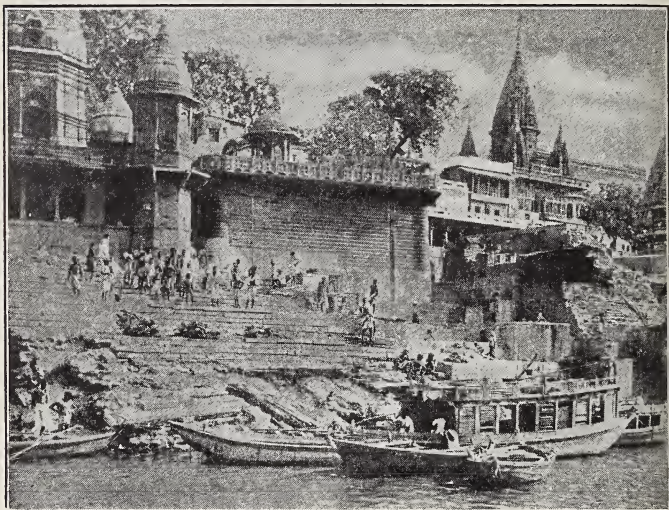
Burma, off to the east, was a separate crown colony, with about the area of Texas and the population of New York state. Some of the time Burma has been rather closely associated in government with India, but since 1935 it was treated as a separate crown colony until in 1948 it became independent.

Hereafter, there will be three separate governments — India, Pakistan, and Burma — in the regions from the Valley of the Indus on the west to the valley of the Irrawaddy on the east. Since we shall probably continue to think of India as we have thought of it in the past, for some time, at least, let us say something about India as a whole.

In India there are forty-five races, speaking, some say, as many as 170 languages. Some Indian religions are very old. Foremost is Brahmanism. It teaches of deities such as Brahma, Vishnu, and Siva, and holds such doctrines as the transmigration of souls, reverence for certain animals, and respect for temples and other holy places. About the time of Confucius in China a thinker named Gautama (c. 568–488 B.C.), dissatisfied with Brahmanism, thought out a new principle and came to call himself Buddha (bōōd'a) (the enlightened one). To him life was just a succession of suffering and woe, and man's chief hope was to check all human desires until finally he might attain Nirvana (nir vā'na), which is practically nothingness. Buddhism was popular in India for more than a thousand years, but then it began to lose its hold

there. Out of India's 380,000,000 people today, nearly two-thirds are Hindus (Brahmans in religion); about one-fifth Mohammedans; about one-thirtieth Buddhists; and one-seventieth Christians.

Under the Hindu caste system, every Hindu was supposed to stay in the class in which he was born. Nearly 60,000,000 were "untouchables," who had "lost caste" and with whom others were



A SCENE IN BENARES

Wide World

Benares is the Holy City of India. The piles of sticks are to be used for cremating the bodies of Hindus who died in that city. In the sacred water of the Ganges pilgrims come from all over India to bathe.

supposed to have nothing to do. Under India's new constitution, however, the former restrictions on untouchables have been ended. When the British came into India, such customs as the suttee, which required the widow of a man to be burned on a funeral pyre after his death, and the marriage of girls at a ridiculously early age, were common. The British have got rid of the suttee, but not until 1929 could they put through the Indian Assembly a law forbidding the marriage of girls under fourteen

years of age. At one time it was said that there were 100,000 widows in India under twelve years of age! Think what a dilemma the British have had to face — if they tolerated such customs, they would meet the reproach of the civilized world, but if they abolished them, they offended the very people they were trying so hard to help!

Even though the great mass of the people of India do not or cannot take advantage of opportunities for education, the British have introduced or reorganized schools and colleges of all grades. They have been responsible for the building of railroads, highways, and canals, and carrying on postal, telegraph, and telephone service. They have built dams for irrigating some millions of acres of land. They have tried to relieve the scourges of famine and pestilence that in the past came over India every few years. Most of India has a hot climate, and in such climates few people like to work. This is one of the reasons why so large a proportion of the people of India live so near a starvation level.



GANDHI

In recent years one outstanding name among the people of India has been that of Mohan'das Karam'chand Gand'hi, often called Mahat'ma, or "Great soul." Looking at the picture of this bald-headed, shriveled-up little man, weighing less than 100 pounds and wearing something that looks like a sheet, a westerner wonders how any such person could have any influence. Yet to millions and millions in India he was a saint. His slightest word was to them a command. By going on a fast, he could gain the attention of all the world.

Gandhi thought that what India needed was not the noise and rush of western industrial countries, but quiet and deliberate ways of living. He accepted many of the teachings of Christ, but would not call himself a Christian. He opposed war and urged

“non-violence” or “civil disobedience” as a means of resisting any authority of which he disapproved. That meant simply doing nothing either to resist or to obey such authority.

Another native leader who has been very prominent in recent years is Jawaharlal Nehru, a high class Hindu who had studied in England, and was not always satisfied with the policies in which Gandhi believed as a means of getting India out from under British rule. Just as Nehru became the leader of the Hindu people in India who wanted their own government, so Mohammed Ali Jinnah has been the foremost Mohammedan in the provinces under British rule.

For some time British leaders at home would have been willing to let India become a dominion in the British Commonwealth on virtually the same footing as Canada. But they could not depend upon India's staying united and peaceful. The so-called Indian Congress, which was more like a political party than a law-making body, represented a larger part of the people than the Mohammedan element of which Jinnah was the leader. Jinnah insisted on a separate government, which he called Pakistan, for that part of India in which the Mohammedans were most numerous.

After the Labor government under Prime Minister Attlee came into power, the decision was reached that the British would get out of India as far as having any political authority was concerned. Lord Louis Mountbatten was the last of the Viceroys to represent British authority in India as a whole. He was surprisingly successful in bringing about the change in control peacefully, as far as the British were concerned.

It was decided that two governments should be established in India, both of them, for a while, at least, to be dominions in the British Commonwealth. Mountbatten continued as Governor-general of India, but its real political head was Nehru as Prime Minister. New Delhi is its capital. Jinnah became the new Governor-general of Pakistan, with Karachi as its capital. On August 15, 1947, Britain gave up its authority over India, and the two new governments took over.

Those parts of India which had been ruled by native princes were, in a way, left up in the air. But it was expected that many of them would line up with one or the other of the new governments.

Some of these native states had several million people and their rulers were among the richest men in the world. It was somewhat of a problem for these princes to decide what was best for them to do. Most of them decided to join one or the other of the new states.

Perhaps what the British had really done for India was never more clear than what happened when British authority was withdrawn. Since neither the new India nor Pakistan was made up entirely of people of one race or religion, there were many thousands who were dissatisfied under the new set-up. Mohammedans wanted to get out of India, and Hindus wanted to get out of Pakistan. Wholesale murders were committed by men of one group against people of the other group. Probably no one will ever know how many thousands lost their lives or how much damage to property was caused by the reckless cruelty in which both sides took part. Gandhi went on his fifteenth fast when serious disorder between Hindus and Moslems developed over the province of Kashmir. He seemed to have succeeded in getting the leaders on both sides to stop fighting over that matter.

Then one of his own people, a Hindu who belonged to a radical group among them, shot him to death (January 30, 1948).

The next day, thousands of people of various races and creeds, including Premier Nehru and Earl Mountbatten, followed Gandhi's body to the sacred river Jumna, where it was cremated. Gandhi exercised great power over many people of different races and beliefs. Though his body was consumed, his spiritual influence will long be felt.



RUBBER AND TIN

These ships at the Penang docks in Malaya are being loaded with bundles of raw rubber and ingots of tin.

India and Pakistan have both chosen to continue as dominions in the British Commonwealth of Nations. Jinnah died September 11, 1948. His successor as Governor-General of Pakistan is Khwaja Nazimuddin. On January 26, 1950, the Governor-General of India, Chakravarty Rajagopalachari, read a proclamation at New Delhi which put an end to his own office and announced Rajendra Prasad as the first President of the Republic of India.

In the southern part of the peninsula of Indo-China are lands long-known as British Malaya, and now organized as the Federation of Malaya, effective February 1, 1948. It includes the nine Malay states and the two British settlements of Penang and Malacca. Singapore, near the tip, is now a Crown colony. Each State has its own ruler, subject to the High Commissioner and the Federal Councils of the central government. Once the center of the world's tin and rubber production, Malaya is gradually recovering some of this trade lost during the Japanese occupation.

Why do you suppose so many of the people of India have not appreciated the services of Britain to India? Do you think India will amount to as much in its commercial relations with the rest of the world, now that it is divided, as when there was one government to oversee the whole country? Will any outside country be likely to try to get influence in India, now that British authority has been withdrawn?

351. Ireland's Grievances against England. — Bitterness and discontent have marked England's relations with Ireland for centuries. Why? Partly because the Irish people looked upon Englishmen as purely foreign conquerors; and because England, with Ireland so near to her, was determined to keep Ireland under control so that no hostile power should use it as a foothold for attacks upon England. The Irish were not Anglo-Saxon or Norman, but Celtic. Christianity came from Rome to Ireland before it did to England, and the great majority of the Irish people kept their allegiance to the Roman Catholic Church through all the religious struggles from Luther's day to the present. Beginning with Henry II and continuing under the reigns of several later English monarchs, English lords were given land in Ireland totally without reference to the rights of the people already there. Ireland's three great grievances, then, concerned government, religion, and landholding.

In the reign of King Henry VII (1494) "Poynings' law" was passed, which allowed Ireland to have a separate parliament with power to pass laws that concerned Irish local affairs, but it could meet only with the king's consent. Authority in government was kept in the hands of representatives of the Church of England. English laws restricted Irish trade for the same purpose that they did the commerce of the English colonies — that is, to make sure that no industry or business developed which would conflict with any English industry. Manufacturers were so closely limited by such laws that there was not much for the Irish people to do but farm, and the farms were mostly owned by English landlords.

English politicians finally concluded that trouble would be reduced if no further attempt was made to give Ireland a separate government. So in 1800 a law was passed doing away with a separate parliament and allowing Ireland representation in the British House of Lords and House of Commons. In numbers this representation was generous enough, but Ireland's 100 representatives in the House of Commons would be far outvoted when there was any question at stake between Ireland and England by the 500 or more members representing England and Scotland.

On top of this difficulty, for a long time Catholics had not been allowed to vote in Ireland any more than they were in England; and the great Catholic majority of Ireland felt that it was shut out of any political rights. A young lawyer named Daniel O'Connell, an able speaker, at last succeeded in stirring up enough agitation to convince the English Parliament that there should be a change. So in 1829 the Catholic Emancipation Act was passed, giving Catholics the same political privileges which the Protestants enjoyed and allowing them to be elected to Parliament. That was a real gain!

But still the Church of England was maintained by law as the established church in Ireland, in spite of the fact that in many parts of the island nobody attended its services except the rector and perhaps some followers of an English landlord. The first relief on this point was obtained when the cost of supporting the Anglican Church was imposed upon the owners of land instead of

those who lived on it. Gladstone cleaned up this trouble in 1869 by having a law passed for the "disestablishment" of the Irish Church, which put the Church of England on the same footing as other religious bodies. The difficulty still remained, however, that North Ireland, commonly referred to as "Ulster," was



A SCENE IN OLD IRELAND

Ewing Galloway

While Ireland has its thoroughly up-to-date cities, rural scenes like this, in County Meath. make the strongest impression on tourists.

strongly Protestant and the majority of its people violently opposed to Catholicism.

The "absentee landlords," as the English lords were called who had estates in Ireland but never came near them, were a constant source of trouble. They depended upon agents in Ireland to collect the rent from their estates; and the agents' success depended upon how much rent they could get. "Rack renting," as it was called, was carried to such a point as to leave to the peasants after they had paid their rent hardly enough to live on. Besides, tenants could be put out on very short notice, when another tenant could be secured who would pay more than the one who was already living on a piece of land. If a tenant at his own

expense made improvements on the property, he might expect to have his rent raised. Naturally the peasants became shiftless and did not care whether their farms were kept in good condition or not. After the terrible potato famine of 1846 and 1847, the population of Ireland went down fast. It had grown rapidly from about 1,500,000 in 1800 to over 8,000,000 in 1845. During the next five years about 1,000,000 people died and 1,000,000 more left Ireland to go to the United States.

Again Gladstone was the first English statesman to appreciate the importance of relieving Ireland's discontent. Irishmen had been demanding "the three F's" — fair rent, fixity of tenure, and free sale. In 1870 the first of a series of Irish Land Acts was passed, which provided that a landlord should be made to pay for improvements which a tenant made on his property if the tenant was put out. Other helpful laws followed, especially in 1881, 1885, and 1903. By these laws Irishmen gained the three F's and the government lent over £100,000,000 for the tenants to use in paying the landlords for the title to the land. The tenant was to pay the government a certain percentage of the price of the land each year until finally it would be all paid for — and these payments were so fixed as to be in most cases less than the rent which had formerly been demanded by the landlord.

Why is it unfortunate for any country or district to have much of its land owned by outsiders? Do you think the mass of the English people realized the just grievances of the Irish or simply did not know what the situation was?

352. The Struggle for Home Rule. — After the problems of religion and land in Ireland were relieved, the question of government was still a sore spot. The fact that when England got into trouble some Irish people would assist England's enemies made Englishmen think they had a real grievance against the Irish. In 1798, for example, England had to put down a revolt that had French support. In 1803 a rebellion under the Irish patriot, Robert Emmet, was ended by his execution. In 1848 some Irishmen tried to organize a "Young Ireland" like Mazzini's Young Italy, but this movement also accomplished nothing.

From about 1870 onward the demand for Irish "home rule" may have been talked about even more than the land or the

religious question. As usually defined, this would mean a separate Irish Parliament with the right to make laws for Irish affairs, and in the later nineteenth century most Irishmen would have been satisfied with that. Gladstone concluded that things in Ireland would never be right until the island had home rule. In his last ministry (1893) he succeeded in getting a home rule bill through the House of Commons, but it was overwhelmingly defeated by the Lords. By the time the matter again came up in Parliament Gladstone was gone and the measure was in the hands of the new liberal leaders, Asquith and Lloyd George. The Parliament Act of 1911 so reduced the power of the House of Lords that there was some hope of getting a home rule bill through. One was adopted by the House of Commons in 1912 and then passed again in 1913 and 1914, when it finally became a law under the new arrangement without the consent of the Lords.

Now occurred one more example of the difficulty of getting anything done that would satisfy Ireland as a whole. The people of Ulster violently protested against the home rule bill and talked about resisting it by force. That might mean a civil war between North Ireland and South Ireland. Just then World War I broke out and "home rule" was dropped. When an Irish government was finally established, it was an entirely new set-up.

What difference do you see between home rule and independence? What advantage might there be to Ireland in having self-government without being independent of Great Britain? Do you think the Ulsterites were justified in refusing to accept the home rule bill of 1914? Why do you suppose the House of Lords refused to approve home rule?

353. The New Ireland. — World War I gave a new chance for Irishmen who wanted independence to look for help from the enemies of England, though Germany had no interest in Ireland except to make trouble for England. By this time an organization had been started in Ireland which took the name of *Sinn Fein* (shil fāne), which means in the old Irish language "ourselves alone." They wanted to establish an independent Irish republic. As one of several ways to stir up Irish patriotism, they proposed to substitute the old native language of Ireland for English and did use the Irish form of their own names. The Sinn Feiners started a rebellion in 1916, but it was promptly suppressed.

The close of World War I did not bring peace in Ireland. After two or three years of dreadful disorder, Lloyd George, then England's prime minister, worked out with Irish leaders an agreement which was put in the form of a treaty between Great Britain and South Ireland. Ulster preferred to be left associated with England, but the rest of Ireland took the name of the Irish Free State and became a completely self-governing dominion. Its parliament included a senate and a house called the Dail Eireann (däl ä'rin). Its members were to take an oath of loyalty to George V, not as king of England but as symbolizing the membership of the Irish Free State in the British Empire. The king was to appoint a governor-general, who must be acceptable to the Irish cabinet.

For several years the Free State was managed with skill by William T. Cosgrave. In 1932, however, Eamon de Valera came into power. He had wanted an Irish republic, and at first had resisted the Free State government. After a little, he caused the Dail Eireann to do away with the senate, the governor-general, and the oath of allegiance to the king. By refusing

to pay money to the British government as previously agreed in connection with the purchase of title to Irish land, he provoked considerable ill feeling in England.

In 1937 a new Constitution was adopted for Eire, which provided for a Senate and House of Representatives and a President, but with a Prime Minister as the real head of the government. In December, 1948, the Dail Eireann passed a measure which put an end to the position of Eire as a dominion within the Commonwealth. It would become the Republic of Ireland. This measure was put into effect amid great demonstrations of enthusiasm on Easter Monday, 1949.



JOHN A. COSTELLO

After Eamon de Valera had been Prime Minister of Eire for sixteen years, he was displaced by Costello, under whom the plan to separate Eire from Great Britain was carried still further.

The future relations between Ireland and Britain still remain to

be definitely worked out. It will surely be for the interests of both to be on friendly terms. De Valera kept Eire neutral in World War II, and the Irish leaders still wish to bring into Ireland the six northern counties of the island which have thus far remained a part of the United Kingdom. At an election in February, 1949, however, for members of the Parliament of North Ireland, about two-thirds of the successful candidates favored continuing the previous relations of these counties with Britain.

England has done nothing lately to try to stop Ireland from becoming completely independent. Why do you think that policy was not followed earlier? Did England mean to be willfully harsh? Does Ireland gain anything by being outside the British Commonwealth?

354. The Empire and the Commonwealth of Nations. — Over the vast territory under the British flag today the King of England is officially known as follows: "George VI, by the grace of God, of Great Britain, North Ireland, and the British Dominions beyond the seas, King, and Defender of the Faith." But does he, with all this high-sounding title, *rule* the British Empire? No one would be quicker than King George VI to say that the king is not a divine-right monarch in the old sense of the term. The king's office, commonly called the Crown, is the only recognized bond of union among these far-flung territories. Nothing is done officially without his authority, given directly or indirectly. But the king always gives that authority when he feels that his people want a thing done a certain way.

Great Britain governs her colonies, the people of most of them would say themselves, liberally and fairly. The British Parliament makes laws only for England, Scotland, Wales, and Ulster, and levies taxes only on those districts. In the World Wars only citizens of Great Britain were drafted for the British army and navy. The colonies and dominions did their full share in that conflict, but they did it of their own free will. As soon as a need is known, from the four quarters of the globe, as Kipling expressed it, "the whelps of the lion answer him." The British navy is maintained not merely to protect England's lines of commerce in time of war, but also to safeguard any part of the Empire.

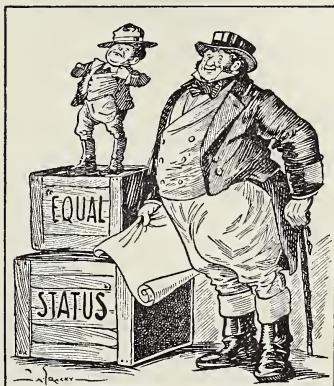
A great imperial federation has been suggested, and several notable "Imperial Conferences" have been held which were at-

tended by the chief ministers of the various dominions and larger colonies. At one of these, in the fall of 1926, however, it was agreed that "nothing would be gained by attempting to lay down a constitution for a British Empire." That same Conference declared:

"Great Britain and the dominions . . . are autonomous communities within the British Empire, equal in status, in no way subordinate one to the other in any aspect of their domestic or foreign affairs, though united by a common allegiance to the Crown and freely associated as members of the British Commonwealth of Nations. . . . Every self-governing member of the Empire is master of its destiny. In fact, if not always in form, it is subject to no more compulsion whatever."

This report was approved by the prime ministers of Canada, Australia, South Africa, Newfoundland, and New Zealand, and the president of the Executive Council of the Irish Free State. Another imperial conference in 1930 made recommendations which were put into law by the British Parliament under the name of the "Statute of Westminster" (1931). This declares that no act of the British Parliament applies to a dominion except by the direct consent of that dominion, and that a dominion parliament has full authority to make laws governing the acts of its own citizens anywhere. The dominions exchange ambassadors with other countries the same as Britain herself, and each of them has been a recognized member of the League of Nations and of the United Nations.

The British Commonwealth of Nations was unlike anything the world had seen before, for it was composed of free people who chose to stay under a flag from which they could get away if they



BIG AS DADDY NOW

The agreements reached in the famous Imperial Conference of 1926 and put into law by the Westminster Statute of 1931 pleased immensely the dominions. This is the way the cartoonist of the *Montreal Star* saw the situation.

wished. At a conference of the Prime Ministers of the Dominions, who met in London in October, 1948, India, Pakistan, and Ceylon were represented on the same footing as Canada, Australia, and New Zealand. When this conference issued a statement of its program, the word "British" was omitted from the title of the Commonwealth. Whether some of the Dominions represented — South Africa, for example — are thinking of breaking away from Britain to the extent that Ireland has done, is something that only they can tell. Britain would like to have them stay in the Commonwealth, but it is the Dominions that will make the decision.

Why do you think distant lands such as Canada and Australia care to continue to be loyal to the British Crown? What influences help to hold the Commonwealth and Empire together? Make a list of the so-called world empires, from ancient Persia to the present time, and consider what it was that held them together.

355. Colonial Problems and Possibilities Today. — As fast as backward people gain experience in governing themselves, the same problems are likely to confront those who today have authority over them as have been faced by Great Britain. When is it safe for people to be independent? Is independence the *right* of every group that asks for it? World War II aroused native peoples in several places to think of becoming independent from any foreign power, European or Asiatic. But then the question came, Were they equal to the job of governing themselves? The United States has faced such questions in the Philippines and in Puerto Rico, not to mention its smaller island possessions. France also has met them in her colonies, because among these people are found numerous races and colors. She has not governed all her colonies in just the same way.

Problems of religion, language, and trade confront every nation that has extensive colonies. By experience the great powers have learned that it is best to leave religion to the free choice of the people, as long as nothing immoral or socially harmful is done in the name of religion. It often seems wise to introduce the language of the mother country as a bond of union between the colony and the mother country without *compelling* its use. Through the colonies of the great powers language may become a unifying force in the world. It is certainly better to have a few languages known all

over the world than to have every country acquainted with only its own separate tongue or dialect. As for trade, it is easy to see why colonies or the mother country may feel like giving special favors to one another in tariff laws or other commercial regulations. On the whole, however, it is doubtful whether anybody is better off if the trade of a colony is tightly bound up with that of the mother country.

Why would it not be good policy for Great Britain to require all tea produced in India to be sold through England only? Would the United States be justified in declaring that no sugar or tobacco from the Philippines should be sold anywhere in the United States? Draw up a list of conditions which should be insisted upon in the case of a colony which has not had complete self-government and which is going to be given independence.

IDEAS TO STAY WITH US

In the nineteenth and twentieth centuries all the great nations of Europe and the United States of America either deliberately acquired distant possessions or gained them in carrying out other policies.

China, thickly populated but not caring for change, was forced to open its ports to European traders. After being defeated by Japan and punished by the world powers for the Boxer Rebellion, China turned slowly toward western ideas. The effort to set up a republic met many obstacles, but under Chiang Kai-shek China gained the respect of the civilized world.

Japan was for a long time unwilling to receive foreigners, but after Commodore Perry's visit gradually adopted a different policy. The enlightened reign of Mutsuhito marks an extraordinary social and economic revolution. Japan's successes against Russia and China encouraged her military men to seek the control of the whole Far East and to defy Great Britain and the United States.

Though some of the northern part of Africa has been included in the civilized world since the beginning of history, the greater part of the continent was unknown to white men until the nineteenth century. After European powers realized that here was a vast continent for exploitation, there was a grand rush for its lands. Great Britain and France have the largest portions. Belgium, Portugal, Spain, Italy, and, before World War I, Germany, have held smaller ones.

The expansion of white men into unoccupied lands and the setting up of new governments independent of Europe were characteristic features of the New World in the nineteenth and early twentieth

702 World-Wide Advance of European Civilization

centuries. The United States spread over not only a vast area in North America but acquired island possessions in the West Indies and in the Pacific Ocean.

Latin-American countries gained their freedom during the Napoleonic Wars and immediately afterward, aided materially by the Monroe Doctrine. The progress of these countries has been uneven. Some have become reasonably strong and prosperous. The development of Pan-American co-operation has been helpful.

The British Empire at its greatest extent included about one-fourth of the world's land and people. In it are found dominions, colonies, naval stations, and other possessions, large and small, and such varied kinds of government as different regions seem to need.

British policies in India have not furnished the most successful example of British colonial administration. Britain has concluded to withdraw and two countries, India and Pakistan, have come into being, with results which at first were unpleasant.

After many years of unfriendly feeling between Britain and Ireland, Britain has decided no longer to try to use any compulsion on Ireland about its government. She is not yet ready, however, to let North Ireland leave her.

The relation of Great Britain and the dominions of the British Empire has no parallel in history. By mutual agreement it is understood that Great Britain's laws apply to the dominions only by their own voluntary choice.

Colonies bring problems to every nation. As backward peoples become intelligent and prosperous, they usually think they are competent to handle their own affairs. How far to recognize such aspirations will be one of the outstanding colonial problems of the future.

NAMES AND TERMS WE SHOULD UNDERSTAND

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|-------------------------|-------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. Imperialism | 12. Mutsuhito | 23. Bolivar |
| 2. "White man's burden" | 13. Manchoukuo | 24. San Martín |
| 3. Sphere of influence | 14. "Yellow Peril" | 25. Monroe Doctrine |
| 4. "Middle Kingdom" | 15. The Dark Continent | 26. ABC Powers |
| 5. Manchus | 16. Livingstone | 27. Spanish War |
| 6. Opium War | 17. Stanley | 28. Diaz |
| 7. Boxer Rebellion | 18. Partition of Africa | 29. Pan-Americanism |
| 8. Open Door | 19. Kongo Free State | 30. Pan-American Union |
| 9. John Hay | 20. Cape to Cairo | 31. Dominion |
| 10. Sun Yat Sen | 21. Kitchener | 32. Crown colony |
| 11. Matthew C. Perry | 22. Latin America | 33. Mandate |

- | | | |
|-------------------------------|------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 34. Durham | 40. Cecil Rhodes | 47. Dail Eireann |
| 35. Botany Bay | 41. Sepoy Mutiny | 48. Commonwealth of Nations |
| 36. Commonwealth of Australia | 42. Emperor of India | 49. Eire |
| 37. Boers | 43. Gandhi | 50. Pakistan |
| 38. Trek | 44. Absentee landlords | 51. Nehru |
| 39. Kruger | 45. Irish Free State | 52. Jinnah |
| | 46. De Valera | |

DATES WORTH REMEMBERING

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1800 Union of England and Ireland | 1898 Spanish-American War |
| 1823 Monroe Doctrine | 1899-1902 Boer War |
| 1857 Sepoy Mutiny | 1901 Commonwealth of Australia |
| 1867 Dominion Act for Canada | 1904-1905 Russo-Japanese War |
| 1867 Mutsuhito, Emperor of Japan | 1922 Irish Free State formed |
| 1869 Suez Canal opened | 1947 British leave India |

INTERESTING SUBJECTS YOU MAY LIKE TO KNOW ABOUT

The Boxer Rebellion
 The Relations between China and Japan since 1920
 The Early Civilization of Japan
 Changes in Japan under Mutsuhito
 The Russo-Japanese War
 The Relations of the United States with Japan, Past and Present
 Notable African Explorers in the Nineteenth Century
 David Livingstone and His Achievements
 English Interests and Purposes in Egypt
 The Career and Purposes of Cecil Rhodes
 The Work of Bolivar and San Martín
 Commercial Opportunities in South America Today
 The Problems of Mexico
 Pan-Americanism and the Pan-American Union
 The Construction and Importance of the Panama Canal
 Kipling as the Poet of the British Empire
 Canada's Problems and Prospects
 Australia and Its People
 Notable Policies and Laws of New Zealand
 The Boer War and Its Outcome
 The Career and Influence of Gandhi
 India's Problems Today
 Ireland in the 20th Century
 The Commonwealth of Nations

INTERESTING PROJECTS YOU MAY LIKE TO UNDERTAKE

1. Make maps of the world showing the colonial possessions of the principal nations about 1850, 1900, and today.

2. Make maps of South America, Africa, Canada, India, and Australia showing political boundaries, important mountains, rivers and other waters, and notable cities.

3. On a map of eastern Asia locate :

Manchoukuo	Canton	Shanghai	Batavia	Osaka
Mongolia	Hong Kong	Mukden	Singapore	Kyoto
Korea	Peking (Peiping)	Port Arthur	Tokyo	Sakhalin
Nanking	Tientsin	Vladivostok	Yokohama	Manila

4. Make sketches or models of dress or weapons of feudal Japan; dress or dwellings of the Chinese.

5. Draw cartoons illustrating some of the following: relations between China and Japan; Great Britain and her colonies and dominions; politics in South America; White Man's Burden; United States and the Philippines.

6. Make a sketch map of the United States showing the various additions of territory up to 1853.

7. Conversations among Americans or among Americans and Englishmen involving the Boer War or the problems of India or the relations of Ireland to Great Britain.

8. Arrange a panel or forum on the subject: How May the Joint Interests of the United States and the Latin-American Countries Be Protected to the Advantage of All?

9. Draw a sketch using figures of men of different sizes to show the relative importance of the different races and religions in India.

10. Make a sketch map of Ireland showing the important features of Irish geography, the chief divisions of Ireland, and the most important cities.

11. Write editorials on problems of Ireland that might have been discussed in 1922 or today in a Dublin, London, or New York newspaper.

12. Arrange a conversation that will include an Englishman, a Frenchman, a Japanese, and an American to discuss the purposes of colonies and the relations of colonies to the mother country.

PLACES FOR FURTHER READING

- | | |
|---|--|
| Berkov, <i>Strong Man of the East</i> | Encyclopedias |
| Bowman, <i>The New World</i> | Farson, <i>Transgressor in the Tropics</i> |
| Danton, <i>The Chinese People</i> | Geographies |
| Hayes, <i>Political and Social History of Modern Europe</i> , Vol. II, Chs. XXVII-XXIX, 845-852 | Chiang (Mme.), <i>This Is Our China</i> |
| Larson, <i>The British Commonwealth of Nations</i> | |
| Moon, <i>Imperialism and World Politics</i> | |
| Packard and Sinnott, <i>Nations as Neighbors</i> | |
| Price, <i>Japan Reaches Out</i> | |
| Robertson, <i>The History of Latin-American Nations</i> | |
| Robinson and Beard, <i>The Development of Modern Europe</i> , Vol. II, Chs. V-VIII | |
| XVI | |
| Rugg, <i>Changing Civilizations in the Modern World</i> , V, VI, VIII, XVII-XXIV | |

Wells, *Outline of History*, 977-999

Pamphlets issued by the Foreign Policy Association include: *Shadow Over Asia, East and West of Suez, Restless India, Eclipse of the Rising Sun, Look at Africa, The Good Neighbors, Latin America, Look at Latin America, Empire's End in Southeast Asia*. Stories by Pearl Buck are good for an inside view of some Chinese life.

Allen, *The North Pacific*

Chamberlin, *Canada Today and Tomorrow*

Cloete, *The Turning Wheels*

Comfort, *Down among Men*

Cotes, *The Burnt Offering*

Cotes, *The Story of Sonny Sahib*

Crow, *Meet the South Americans*

Frenssen, *Jorn Uhl*

Gilman, *Son of the Desert*

Gunther, *Inside Latin America*

Henty, *In Times of Peril*

Kipling, *Plain Tales from the Hills*

Kipling, *The Seven Seas*

Leslie, *Doomsland*

Long, *The Way of the Gods*

McCall, *The Breath of the Gods*

Mundy, *Rung Ho!*

O'Duffy, *The Wasted Island*

Pollard, *With Gordon at Khartoum*

Schurz, *Latin America*

Sienkiewicz, *In Desert and Wilderness*

Wentworth, *The Devil's Wind*

Young, *Pilgrim's Rest*



A FILIPINO AND HIS WATER BUFFALO

Publishers' Photo

In the Philippines the United States has met most of the problems that other nations with distant colonies have faced. Not only such relatively primitive scenes as the one above, but conditions typical of big cities in any part of the world, can be observed in the islands to which we have now given independence.



OVER THE TOP

Although there was less hand-to-hand fighting in World War I than in any previous great conflict, scenes like this were not uncommon in it. Barbed wire entanglements, exploding mines, and bombs from airplanes were some of the menaces an advancing army had to face.

XVI. THE GREAT CATASTROPHE

*We wait beneath the furnace blast
The pangs of transformation;
Not painlessly doth God recast
And mould anew the nation.*

— WHITTIER

Before 1914 some students of international affairs had begun to believe that there never would be another great war. It would be too destructive, they said, and no nation would take the responsibility of forcing the world into such a conflict. That statement is correct enough, for no nation cares to accept the responsibility for that World War; but several nations were willing to let it come on, with the expectation of blaming somebody else for it. They had worked themselves into positions from which they were not brave or wise enough to back down.

Pointers for Our Study:

What situations and conditions were back of the World War?

What series of events actually gave the excuse for the war to begin?

How were all the great nations of the world drawn into it?

What were the chief campaigns of the war, and what features of the fighting were new or outstanding?

What problems were connected with the making of peace treaties at the close of the war, and what were the chief provisions of those treaties?

What were the results of the great struggle, and what effects did it have on human welfare?

356. Situations That Worked toward War. — Many events of the nineteenth century which would not separately have caused war helped to bring on the one which began in 1914. When Bismarck, in 1871, forced France to turn Alsace and Lorraine over to the new German Empire, the French felt grievously wronged. They talked about "revanche" (re vānsh'). While they would not have gone to war solely to get "revenge" on Germany, they hoped something would happen to bring the provinces back to France. Italy was tied up with Germany and Austria in the Triple Alliance (§ 271) because when it was proposed it seemed to be to her interest. Still she wanted the return of the districts inhabited by Italian people which were still under the rule of Austria — "Italia Irredenta."

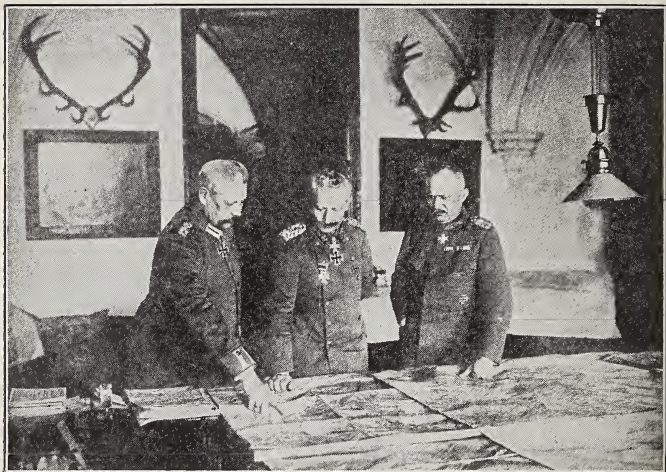
Numerous racial groups were dissatisfied. The Poles, the greater part of whom were under Russian rule, wanted to be independent again. Under Austria-Hungary were Germans, Hungarians, Bohemians, Slovaks, Poles, Croatians, Slavonians, and others. Serbia would have been glad to welcome some of them into a union with her.

International rivalries outside of Europe were often keen. Germany had increased her foreign commerce enormously, so that it surpassed that of the United States and was beginning to rival that of Britain. The struggle to acquire or to hold colonies also might easily provoke trouble. The Dutch, even before the nineteenth century, had built up a colonial empire many times the size of their home country. The British were proud of their empire on which the "sun never set." In Africa, the French had gained extensive territories and Belgium had had a vast colony handed to her. Spain, Portugal, and Germany were also holding African soil. Several "incidents" occurred which could easily have developed into something serious, if the diplomats of the time had not then been trying to avoid rather than to make war.

It will help you to compare the maps of Europe and the world following pages 518 and 638 with recent maps of the same area in newspapers or magazines.

357. Germany's Demand for a Place in the Sun. — Under Bismarck's leadership German industry had been built up and com-

merce encouraged all over the world. The famous Krupp munition works at Essen were already known almost everywhere. The men who were making money out of Germany's new prosperity were strongly devoted to the new government. Germany's military leaders had been so impressed by their easy victories in war that they were sure their army could beat any other.



GERMAN WAR LEADERS

Kaiser William II is in the center. Hindenburg is pointing to some spot of military importance on the map. The other man is Ludendorff, chief of staff.

Some German professors and philosophers were constantly telling the Germans that their civilization was so superior to anything else that it was their business to spread this kultur (kōōl tōōr'), as they called it, all over the world. This idea was sometimes referred to as Pan-Germanism. "We are the salt of the earth," declared Kaiser William II. "God has called us to civilize the world. We are the missionaries of human progress." In 1900 he announced: "Without Germany and the German emperor no great decision dare henceforth be taken."

Naturally a country with such ambitions felt hemmed in, and Germany soon began to talk of "the iron ring" of enemies that

surrounded her. Thus she justified her army and her claim for "a place in the sun." This latter could be secured by colonies, but few desirable places were available. Some of the African territory which she took was unsuited to Europeans.

To help break the "iron ring" the Kaiser courted the friendship of the Sultan of Turkey. Once he paraded into the city of Jerusalem through a special gate and declared himself the "protector of Mohammedans." A Berlin-to-Bagdad railroad was proposed as a connecting link between Germany and Persia. Such measures could easily bring on a clash with Russia, for you remember Russia had long wanted Constantinople.

Do civilized people have a right to force their civilization on the uncivilized? Under different leadership do you think Germany might have grown strong without offending other nations?

358. Alliances and Other Understandings. — Back in the days of King William III of England, you will remember, he adopted the policy of a "balance of power" so that King Louis XIV of France should not be able to dominate all Europe. Late in the nineteenth century, this idea of the balance of power received much attention. It was thought that combinations of countries might help to prevent war between single nations. If everybody knew that when nation X was attacked, nations Y and Z would immediately go to the help of X, other nations would think twice before making trouble for X. But when the idea was tried out, it might appear that nation Q, which was willing to fight X, had similarly tied itself up with nations R and S. Thus there would be six nations in the mixup instead of only two.

The Triple Alliance of Germany, Austria, and Italy extended north and south across Europe and looked rather formidable. It is true that this alliance did not bind its members to help each other in any war except a defensive one, but it is fairly easy for any nation to pretend that a war is defensive, especially if it is anxious to have one.

Bismarck had flirted with Russia now and then, but nothing came of it. Russia was by herself on one side of Germany, and France, somewhat alone, was on the other side. Since they both disliked Germany, it was easy enough for them to become friends, and in 1894 a Dual Alliance was arranged between them.

For years Great Britain continued its earlier policy of trying to keep out of entanglements on the continent of Europe. When Germany grew strong, Great Britain began to wonder whether playing a lone hand would leave her without any friends at all in Europe. So she drew closer to France and to Russia, and in 1907 an understanding was arranged between them which became known as the Triple Entente (än tänt'). Though the obligations of its members to each other were rather vague, it looked as if this combination of three powers now could offset the Triple Alliance. One of the worst features of the whole European situation, indeed, was the "secret diplomacy" by which governments entered into understandings without letting their own citizens know what obligations they had assumed.

Besides her understanding with France and Russia, Great Britain had also made an alliance with Japan which greatly strengthened her position in Far Eastern affairs. But when war broke out in Europe, this alliance left Japan a free hand in the Far East.

The royal families of England, Germany, and Russia were all related by marriage. Would you expect this relationship to have any effect on the attitude of those nations toward one another? Make clear why the former hostility between Great Britain and France, and Great Britain and Russia, had disappeared.

359. The Building of Armies and Navies. — Militarism rested as a crushing load on Europe. Preparedness for war, it was asserted, was the surest way to preserve peace, since you are not likely to be attacked if you are able to defend yourself. But in practice it meant that nations could jump into a war so quickly that nothing could keep them out. Nobody dared to stop building navies and organizing greater armies unless others would also stop. In most countries the men who made a living from their jobs as officers in armies or navies, and great firms that paid big dividends out of the making of guns, ammunition, and other war supplies, kept urging the necessity for preparedness.

The Prussian army had been so successful that other nations were much impressed. Almost every young German had to serve two years in the ranks and then was listed in the reserves. Then Italy and France adopted the same policy of conscription. Even little Switzerland required six months' service in her military camps for

her young men. France, a year or two before the outbreak of World War I, demanded three years' service. Great Britain was the only great power in Europe that did not have compulsory military service at the opening of the twentieth century. She had declared that her navy should be kept equal to any other two navies in the world and asserted that it enabled her to maintain a "Pax Britannica" to which the world owed as much as the



KIEL CANAL AND HARBOR

Publishers' Photo

The completion of this waterway from the North Sea to the Baltic increased greatly Germany's facilities for operations on the water.

Roman Empire claimed to deserve for its "Pax Romana." In 1912 and 1913 Great Britain proposed to Germany that they stop building warships and declared that she would not build any more ships in any year when Germany would build none; but the German government would not agree to any "naval holiday."

Meantime Germany was reconstructing the Kiel (keel) Canal between the North Sea and the Baltic Sea so as to make her navy much more useful in a European war. She made a fortress out of the island of Hel'goland in the North Sea, which the British government had rather stupidly traded to Germany in 1890, never think-

ing that it would be used against Great Britain. Germany also constructed powerful forts near its boundaries and lines of railroads reaching toward its eastern and western frontiers, whose only use could be to carry troops and supplies in war. It is plain now that Europe had never been more ready for war than it was in 1914.

It has been urged by the advocates of large armies and navies that if nations could not fight with guns, they would fight with knives and fists. How does this argument impress you? The United States also began to build a big navy about the time that Germany did. Do you feel that such a policy was justifiable?

360. Efforts to Encourage Peace. — In spite of all this preparedness for war, never before had there been so much talk about preventing war. A few great men of earlier times tried to think of some way to keep Europe at peace. One of these, King Henry IV of France, had a "grand design" for uniting Europe in a confederation that might preserve the peace of the continent, but the proposition never got beyond him. William Penn, Quaker founder of an American colony, thought that a world parliament might be established to give nations a chance to talk over their problems and reduce the likelihood of their going to war about them.

From the end of the eighteenth century onward there were numerous occasions when nations settled their difficulties peacefully. Several times *arbitration* was called upon.¹ It was first employed among great nations by the United States and Great Britain in one part of the Jay Treaty of 1794, and was used again in settling the famous Alabama Claims after the American Civil War.

Europe and the world were perhaps never more surprised than when the Czar of Russia in 1898 came out with a proposal that the nations of the world assemble in a conference at The Hague, in Holland, to work out means of reducing armies and navies. Whatever were the Czar's motives for this proposal, the assembling of the first Hague Peace Conference on May 18, 1899, was really notable in world history. At one time we thought of observing May 18 as World Peace Day or World Good Will Day.

¹ Be sure you understand that *arbitration* means not merely a peaceful settlement of a dispute but a settlement in which one or more neutral or disinterested parties help to decide an argument.

It turned out, however, that several countries were much more willing to *talk* about peace than *do* anything effective in that direction. Nothing much was done by the Conference in the direction of limiting armies and navies, but it did propose the establishment of the so-called Hague Court of Arbitration. The nations of the world were each to nominate a certain number of men to form a list of judges. When two countries had a dispute, they might choose certain persons from this list and refer the case to them. A number of cases of considerable importance were settled in this way; but since World War I, its work has been less necessary, as the so-called World Court established by the League of Nations, and the International Court of Justice provided by the UN Constitution, have handled disputes between nations.

A second Hague Conference took place in 1907, but its results were even less definite than those of the first. Germany and Austria in particular would not listen to any proposals for reducing the size of armies. The conference spent more time in thinking about ways to reduce the horrors of war than in trying to prevent it. Yet there was some gain when nations would get together and even talk about making war less dreadful.

What is the difference between *arbitration* and *negotiation* as a means of dealing with a problem? Is arbitration necessarily a compromise? Suppose it is true that the suggestion for the first Hague Conference came from the fact that the Russian navy was in bad shape. Does it follow that we should consider the Russian proposal insincere?



Publishers' Photo

THE HAGUE PEACE PALACE

Andrew Carnegie's contribution made possible this meeting place for arbitration boards under the original Hague Court. The World Court has met here.

361. The Balkans, the Tinder Box of Europe. — The Balkan Peninsula contained all the “makings” for a great explosion. In southeastern Europe were several small nations — Rumania, Bulgaria, Serbia, Montenegro, and Greece — which at one time or another had been freed from Turkish rule but which did not love one another much more than they did the Turks. The last regions which Turkey lost before 1912 were the provinces of Bos’nia and Herzegovina (her tsěgō vē’na). These had been put under



ALONG THE BOSPORUS

This scene looks pleasant and peaceful, even though some old fortifications are in view. But the control of this strait has caused much jealousy and hostility in past centuries.

Austrian protection (1878) with the understanding that they should not be annexed to Austria. A little thing like that, however, did not bother the Austrian government, which in 1908, when the Turks could not do anything about it, openly annexed the two provinces.

Several powers were interested in the Balkans. Austria wanted a direct outlet on the Aegean Sea. Germany needed a direct way through the Balkans to put through her scheme for a Berlin-to-Bagdad railroad under German control. Yet if Austria and Germany got the upper hand commercially in the Balkans, it

would be disastrous to Russia. Russia claimed to be a "big brother" or protector of the small Balkan states, the majority of whose people were also Greek Christians in religion and Slavic in race. Some felt that all the Slavic countries, big and little, should work together for their common interests. This idea was sometimes referred to as Pan-Slavism.

Near the center of the Balkan Peninsula was the kingdom of Serbia, which was in a way the key to the whole situation. A railroad from Berlin and Vienna to Constantinople would almost have to go through Belgrade, Serbia's capital city. Many people in neighboring districts, including provinces under Austrian rule, were related to the Serbs in race, and Serbia wanted to bring them all together under her rule or protection and perhaps set up a "Yugo-Slav" kingdom. But Austria would not stand for this.

The Balkan peoples had many well-founded grievances against the "terrible Turk" — religious persecution, unjust taxation, bad government. Surprisingly, when you think of their own disagreements with one another, in 1912 four nations — Bulgaria, Serbia, Montenegro, and Greece — got together and declared war on Turkey. They soon had the Turks willing to make peace and hand over to them most of what was left of Turkish territory in Europe.

But just as in 1878 the "great powers" had meddled with Balkan affairs in such a way as to bolster up the Sultan, so now Austria, with the help of Italy and Germany, insisted on upsetting the plan of the four small states for the division of their captured territory. These "kibitzers" demanded the creation of a new state, Albania, in the western part of the peninsula. The small states had to submit.

Then Serbia and Greece, which had suffered most by the creation of Albania, demanded that Bulgaria should share some of her gains with them. Bulgaria refused, and before long war was on between Bulgaria and her two former allies (1913). Rumania, which had selfishly looked on during the earlier struggle against Turkey, now helped itself to some Bulgarian territory, and the Turks recaptured the city of Adrianople, which they had agreed to give up. Bulgaria soon had to quit and turn over to Serbia and Greece some valuable parts of her conquests from Turkey. This

so angered her that she was even ready, as events turned out, to ally herself with her former foes, the Turks, in order to get back at Greece and Serbia.

What do you consider most responsible for the disordered situation in the Balkans in the early part of the twentieth century — the misgovernment of the Turks, the selfishness of the Balkan states, the meddlesomeness of Austria, or the rivalry among the larger nations? Was Bulgaria justified in refusing to give Serbia and Greece some of her conquests?



1912 1913
CHANGES IN THE BALKANS BEFORE WORLD WAR I

362. Setting Off the Spark. — Serbians were still discontented. Secret societies had been formed to make things unpleasant for Austria in the provinces under Austrian rule which Serbia thought should be lined up with her. In June, 1914, the Archduke Francis Ferdinand, heir to the throne of Austria, with his wife made a visit to the town of Sarajevo (sa rä'yě vo) in Bosnia. While riding through the streets of this town, they were shot and killed by a young Serbian (June 28). This act set in motion the whole train of disaster that followed.

Austria now determined to seize the opportunity to put Serbia

out of the way. Getting a reckless promise from the German Emperor to back anything Austria did, Austrian officials drew up a series of demands on Serbia which they expected she would refuse. Some of the terms of this "ultimatum" were justifiable enough; but among other things Austria demanded that officers of her own government should be allowed to come into Serbia and help hunt out plotters against Austria. Serbia surprised the world by agreeing to all the Austrian demands except those that would interfere with the enforcement of law in Serbia itself, and agreed to arbitrate her stand on those matters. But Austria, which had made up its mind to crush Serbia anyway, refused to listen and declared war (July 28, 1914).

Austria's demands on Serbia had stirred up every European capital and had given the officials nothing but worry and sleeplessness. What was going to come out of it? Russia promptly let it be known that she would not sit by and see Serbia crushed. Sir Edward Grey, England's Foreign Secretary, made all kinds of appeals to the German and Austrian governments to work out a settlement of this problem before it got out of control, but he received no effective co-operation from anybody. Russia started to mobilize her troops so that she would be ready for emergencies. Germany then demanded that these troops be demobilized; and when the Russian government failed to do this, she declared war on Russia (August 1). This act of the German government made a world war certain.

France was under obligations to Russia, which made it likely that she would stand by her ally, though she did not come out openly for a day or two. She might have been waiting to see what Great Britain would do. Some think that if the British government had announced that it would go into the war if Germany acted as it did, Germany never would have taken such action. But we can hardly blame the British leaders for stalling and trying every possible means to avoid plunging their country into a death struggle.

Belgium finally settled England's course. Back in 1839 the five leading powers of Europe signed a treaty in which they promised that in any war they would refrain from marching troops through Belgium or otherwise molesting that country as long as

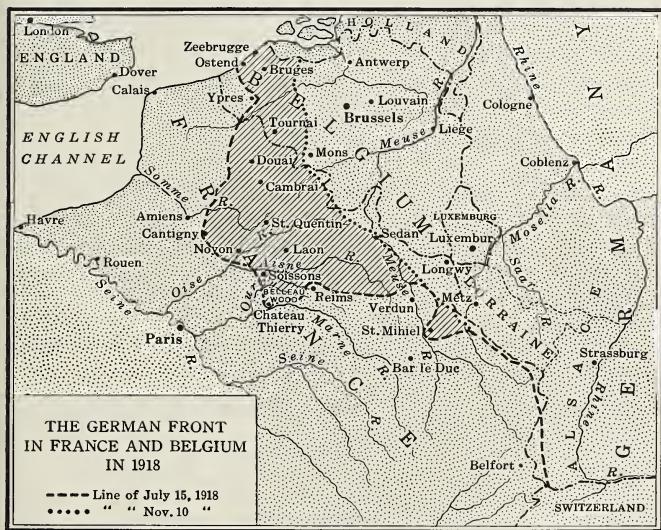
she remained neutral. Great Britain had been one of those signers, and Prussia another. Germany, though bound by Prussia's promise, figured that the quickest way to get at France was through Belgium. She demanded that Belgium let German troops come through, promising to pay for any damage they might do. If Belgium did this, she could not claim to be neutral, and England and France could have justly complained. It was a fearful choice for Belgium's heroic King Albert to make, but he stood firm and refused to consent to let the Germans go through. They came anyway, but the resistance Belgium put up delayed the German advance several days and may have been the one thing necessary to prevent the carrying out of the long-laid plan of the German military leaders.

Probably Great Britain would have felt obliged to go into the war to protect its own interests; but now the British government was sure that its people would be with it in standing for the defense of Belgium and the sanctity of treaties. Great Britain declared war on Germany August 4. The German chancellor, Von Bethmann-Hollweg (fon bāt'man hōl'veg), angrily accused the British ambassador of going to war over "a scrap of paper." He did not realize that this scrap of paper meant more in the loss of sympathy for Germany in the rest of the world than anything else that had happened up to that time.

If Bismarck had been in power in Germany in 1914, do you suppose there would have been any difference in the policies of the German government? If the Kaiser had realized that Austria was going too far, would he have had the right to withdraw his promise to back her? Do you suppose the German leaders thought that the rest of the world would not care what they did to Belgium?

363. The War Gets under Way. — The German military leaders thought they could take their time about dealing with Russia, and tried to crush France before Russia could do anything effectively. The French and the small force England could send over could not at first withstand the steady onrush of the German army. Little by little they retreated; but at last they turned. Under General Joffre (zhōfr'), the French engaged in the great battle of the Marne (September 6–12). The Germans were pushed back, but settled down on French soil.

The battle of the Marne saved France. In a short while the two battle lines were facing each other over a distance of about 600 miles from the southwest corner of Belgium almost to the northwest corner of Switzerland. In that general position they remained for well toward four years, neither side being able to break through the other's defenses.



To the east of Germany another long battle line came into existence, stretching from the Baltic Sea to the northern end of Rumania, but did not settle down in one location as did the western front. Russians invaded East Prussia, but were badly defeated in two battles by the German troops. In these campaigns Hin'denburg, who later became the hero of Germany, first gained fame for himself. The Russians had better success in fighting the Austrians.

By the end of 1914 two other nations were in the war — Japan and Turkey. Japan, in pursuance of her alliance with Great Britain, attacked the German port of Kiaochow in China and

captured it, and also took over the German islands in the north Pacific Ocean. The great British dominions immediately responded to the need of the mother country; and Canadians, Australians, New Zealanders, and South Africans were soon ready to do their full share. Even India, which Great Britain's enemies had hoped would keep her busy, made no particular trouble. The Turks at first pretended to be neutral; but either of their own accord or because urged to do so by Germany, they came into the war on the side of Germany and Austria in October, 1914. People began to speak of Germany, Austria, and Turkey as the Central Powers, while Great Britain, France, and Russia and their associates were commonly called the Allies.

Germany's navy accomplished little during the war, though a few commerce raiders such as the *Emden* performed some extraordinary exploits. Most of Germany's big battleships were blockaded by the British fleet as were many of her merchant vessels. One small German fleet was destroyed by a British fleet near the Falkland Islands (1914).

Would Germany's battle fleet have done her any good if it had been away from home when the war broke out?

364. The War Spreads. — The year 1915 witnessed an important addition to both sides. Italy declared that she was under no obligation to do anything for Germany and Austria because the war was not a defensive one for them. Since the Allies promised to get more territory for her, Italy openly joined them in May, 1915. Bulgaria, however, thought the Central Powers were going to win and sided with them. By this time the Germans and Austrians had overrun Serbia and controlled a continuous line from the North Sea and the Baltic clear through Turkey. In an effort to break through the Dardanelles (dar dăn ălz') and reach Constantinople, the Allies landed troops on Gallipoli (gă lîp'öl ē) Peninsula and tried to send battleships through the straits, but they met with disastrous defeat.

In 1915 the Germans drove the Russian armies back and occupied Warsaw. In the West they tried to break through the British and Canadian lines in northern France; but even with the first use of poison gas in the war they did not succeed.

In 1916 no marked change occurred on the Western front. In defending the great fortress of Verdun against the Germans the French set up the slogan, "They shall not pass." Their heroism kept up French spirit and won sympathy abroad for the French cause. Germany's battle fleet came out and met the British fleet in the battle of Jutland (May 31, 1916). The British lost more ships and men than the Germans, but the German ships retired and did not come out again until they surrendered. In the East and Southeast the Central Powers on the whole had much the best of it in 1916. Rumania came in on the side of the Allies after being promised help from Russia. But everything went wrong for Rumania in a military way and she lost more than half of her territory to her neighbors.

What Greece would do in this war was somewhat doubtful from the very start. Her ablest statesman, Venizelos (vēn ē zā'los), wanted her to join the Allies, but the King of Greece had married the Kaiser's sister, and she wanted to bring Greece into the war on the side of Germany. To prevent such a calamity, the Allies landed troops on Greek soil and took possession of Saloniki (sā lō-nē'kē).

The smaller countries of northern Europe remained neutral all through the war — officially at least. Sweden had considerable sympathy for the Germans and Norway for the Allies. Several hundred Norwegian ships were sunk by the Germans. But those two countries, with Denmark and Holland, figured that their only safety was in staying neutral. Portugal was tied up with England in close commercial relations, and in the year 1916 openly joined the Allies.

List the countries which had gone into the war by the end of 1916, and in each case indicate whether they did so to gain more territory, to defend themselves against wrong, or for some other reason.

365. How Men Fought in This War. — There never had been a war like this. Both sides displayed plenty of heroism, but never before did an individual count for so little. It was one mass against another mass.

In the West, both the Allies and the Germans "dug themselves in" with trenches almost 600 miles long, protected with concrete and equipped with rooms underground as if intended to be per-

manent homes. Instead of an open charge of one line against another, men would come out "over the top" of their trenches only after a tremendous "barrage" (bar räzh') from hundreds of cannon, and move, sometimes slowly, through "no man's land" between the two lines, to attack the enemy.



OFFENSE AND DEFENSE IN THE FIRST WORLD WAR

Soldiers in gas masks are carrying a wounded comrade. Another wounded man is able to walk. In the rear is a tank, and farther back some artillery.

Great guns that could shoot tens of miles were used by both sides and fired by men who themselves could only guess where their projectiles landed. Strange-looking monsters called tanks were built by the Allies, equipped with heavy armor and guns and able to travel after the fashion of a caterpillar tractor over almost any kind of ground. But after the first surprise, these did not prove as effective as their inventors had hoped.

For the first time in any war there was considerable fighting in the air. Both sides had fighting planes, observation planes, and other kinds of aircraft. German aircraft dropped bombs on London and other English cities. Special aircraft defense guns were invented to help keep them off, but the surest way was to go up in

the air and meet them. Most of the fighting in the air was by single pilots — dog fights they were called — in which brilliant fighters on both sides gained fame among their own people. Coöperation between airmen and land forces was also developed. Reconnaissance planes could fly over enemy territory and send information to their own troops as to the location of enemy forces or guns. Sometimes planes were used to drop leaflets carrying propaganda of some kind.

Poison gas, first used by the Germans at the battle of Ypres (ēpr') in 1915, was taken up by the Allies as a necessary measure of self-defense. Gas could lay low a whole regiment at once. Gas masks had to be invented to enable soldiers to save themselves from the terrible effects of the poison.

Today we all know about submarines, but then they were new. Both sides had them, but submarine warfare was of much greater value to the Germans because it was their best way to evade the British blockade and damage Allied shipping. In using the submarine the Germans ignored an established principle of international law, that a warship attacking a merchant or passenger vessel should save the lives of non-combatants before sinking the ship. The most serious disaster from submarine activities occurred on May 7, 1915, when the British liner *Lusitania* was sunk off the coast of Ireland. It carried to the bottom with it nearly 1200 passengers, over 100 of whom were citizens of the United States. The invasion of Belgium and the sinking of the *Lusitania* convinced many that the German war leaders were determined to win at any cost, honorably or dishonorably.

No previous war in history had been to so great an extent the war of whole peoples. Thousands of women and girls spent their spare time at Red Cross work. Factories and farms alike strove to produce what fighting men needed. Money for which bonds were issued was borrowed by the billions from the citizens of the large countries to spend for war purposes.

The soldiers in camps or in trenches were better cared for than ever before. Physicians and surgeons gave to the sick and wounded every possible attention. Priests, ministers, and other workers in the "huts" established by religious organizations worked side by side, regardless of religious sects, to keep the soldier's faith and character clean and his spirit cheerful.

From what you know about poison gas, do you think it is more cruel than bullets? Ask any of your own family who were in the war what they remember about the methods of fighting.

366. The United States and the War. — When the World War broke out, President Wilson issued a proclamation of neutrality, in which he urged Americans to be neutral in both act and thought. The latter suggestion was rather difficult. In the eastern part of the country sympathy for the Allies was fairly strong. As the war went on, many young men enlisted with Canadian troops or even directly under the flag of Great Britain or France. But in the Middle West and in the Far West the prevailing opinion seemed to be that this was just another piece of European bloodshed, from which Americans were happy to be free. In some places, especially where a considerable number of the people were of German ancestry, sentiment for Germany was noticeable.

Arguments arose with both Great Britain and Germany over commerce. Great Britain seized merchant vessels loaded with goods for Denmark or Sweden, claiming, as was likely to be the case, that most of them would be sold to Germany. Germany protested against the sale of war supplies by American manufacturers to the Allies, on the ground that she did not have an equal chance to buy those supplies. Since it had always been the custom in time of war for neutrals to sell anything to anybody who would buy, the United States government refused to change the practice at this time.

Germany's use of the submarine caused a big change in American opinion. After the sinking of the *Lusitania*, President Wilson sent to the German government a series of forceful notes protesting against Germany's methods of submarine warfare. It was hard to believe that the replies of the German government were sincere, but finally it seemed to give a pledge that liners would not be sunk without warning unless they tried to escape. President Wilson's party in the presidential campaign of 1916 used a slogan which was very popular in some sections, "He kept us out of war." But little by little the country was drifting closer to war, and the President made no boasts about keeping out of it.

In January, 1917, the German government, which now thought it had built enough submarines for the purpose, announced that it

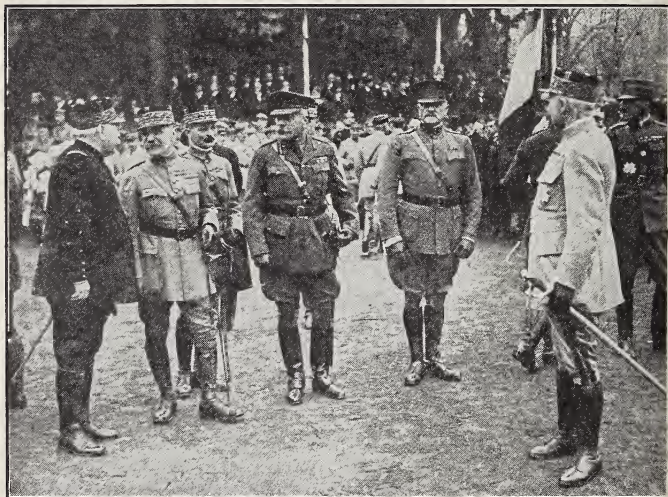
would undertake to sink every vessel going to the British Isles except one ship a week that might go from the United States if it would follow a definite line of travel laid out by the Germans. President Wilson considered this measure both a violation of previous promises and an insult to the United States. During the next two months a number of other sinkings by submarines occurred without warning, including several American ships. Plots laid by agents of the German government to cause explosions and fires in American factories and efforts to arouse Mexico against the United States were brought to light.

Finally on April 2, 1917, President Wilson delivered to Congress a message recommending that the United States recognize as war the activities which the German government had been carrying on. Four days later Congress passed a resolution declaring war, and the United States at once began to co-operate actively with Great Britain, France, and the other Allied powers.

Why, after trying so hard to be neutral, did the United States go in? It had plenty of grievances in Germany's interference with neutral rights, the sinking of American ships, the breaking of promises to the United States government, and the loss of American lives. Wilson, however, put the matter on a very high plane in making it a struggle of free peoples against autocracies. "The world must be made safe for democracy," he declared. Not only the United States but any other free government in the world was not safe, he believed, so long as the military crowd that was running Germany could menace the people of the world.

The nation responded to the President's war message with enthusiasm. Its navy promptly joined the British in patrolling the lines followed by vessels across the Atlantic and took part in the operations in the North Sea. Since the United States had only a small army, far-reaching draft laws were passed, under which over 4,000,000 men went to camp. About half of them got across the Atlantic into the A. E. F. (American Expeditionary Forces) before the war was over. General John J. Pershing was put in charge of the American troops in France, and he joined General Haig of England and General Petain (pě täñ'), then in command of the French troops.

President Wilson almost at once became the outstanding leader of the Allies outside of the fighting forces. On January 8, 1918, he spoke to the United States Senate setting forth his opinion as to what the principal terms of peace should be at the close of the war. These "Fourteen Points" helped greatly to enable Americans to have a notion as to what the war was about and were of much



MILITARY LEADERS OF THE ALLIES

Here you see, from left to right in the front rank, Joffre, Foch, Haig, Pershing, and Petain. Haig was the British leader. Pershing you surely know. The others were French.

encouragement to the Allies in Europe. President Wilson's Fourteen Points and other messages were distributed by airplane over the German lines and German towns, and caused many German people to question seriously whether they could win the war and whether it was worth fighting anyway.

Why did the German government expect that the United States would not actually come into the war? The United States had seen this great struggle in Europe going on for more than two years before it entered it. Why had it not made more preparation for war itself? Why might the

German people take more seriously anything said by President Wilson than by the leaders of European governments?

367. The Collapse of Russia. — It was fortunate for the Allies that the United States came into the war when it did, though it would be unfair for any nation to say, "We won the war." One of the original members of the Entente, Russia, was pretty nearly down and out by the time the United States entered. Of all the nations that took part in the World War, none suffered so terribly in loss of life as did Russia during the time it was in. Her soldiers fought bravely on the whole, but some of the time they were poorly led and were handicapped by a government that was either incompetent or influenced by German spies in high positions.

In 1916 the Russians under the Grand Duke Nicholas executed what looked for a little while like a comeback, gaining some territory from the Austrians, but this was of no real significance. In the spring of 1917 the Russian people had become so dissatisfied that a revolution broke out which brought about the overthrow of the Czar and his own abdication. For a few months a leader named Alexander Keren'sky stirred up the Russians to a last stand against the Germans, but he proved to be a better orator than a statesman or general.

Now occurred one of the most extraordinary changes that ever came to any government. A party known as the *Bolsheviki* (bōlshě vē'kē) — "those who want more," or perhaps "radicals" — had been demanding far-reaching changes in Russia. The Germans, guessing what was going to happen, allowed a Bolshevik leader, Nik'olai Len'in, to come back from exile through Germany to Russia. Under the direction of Lenin and his associate Leon Trotsky, the Bolsheviks soon got control of affairs in Russia. They set up an immediate demand for peace, intending as soon as this had been brought about to start an entirely new system of society and industry in Russia.

The people of Russia were ready for peace at any price. In March, 1918, the Bolshevik leaders signed the treaty of Brest-Litovsk' with the Germans. By this treaty, dictated by the Germans, it was agreed that a vast area which had been in the Russian Empire, including Poland and the smaller districts to the north, be given up, thus laying open to the Germans all the natural resources,

the factories, and the farms of some of the best part of Russia. A similar treaty had put Rumania completely at the mercy of the Germans and Austrians. Their victory on the eastern front seemed to be complete.



Wide World

GENERAL ALLENBY ENTERING JERUSALEM

Instead of having the wall of the city cut open so that he could ride in majesty, as the Kaiser had done when he visited the city, Allenby came in through the Jaffa Gate on foot like any pilgrim or tourist.

the Piave (pē ä've) River. The Germans waited until the next spring before trying to break through the Allied line in the West.

By this time the cause of the Allies outside of Europe began to look brighter. The British moved up the Tigris-Euphrates Valley and took Bagdad (1917). Another British force under General Allenby¹ kept safe the Suez Canal and captured Jerusalem (1917). Helped greatly by Arabs enlisted in the Allied cause by the almost miraculous activities of Colonel Thomas Lawrence, he drove the Turks out of Palestine and badly defeated them in

How do you suppose you would have felt toward the war if you had lived in Russia in 1917? Should we think of Russia as a traitor to the cause of the Allies?

368. Victory for the Allies.

— When Russia went to pieces, Germany and Austria seemed entirely free to give their attention to affairs on their western fronts. Vast bodies of troops were transferred from the east to the Italian front and the so-called Hindenburg Line in France. In October, 1917, the Austrians inflicted a bad defeat on the Italians, pushing them back as far as

¹ Allenby was one of the most sensible and chivalrous of the military leaders in the war. When he entered Jerusalem in December, 1917, he promised to all Mohammedans, Christians, and Jews complete respect for the sacred places of the city and complete religious freedom. He personified the Allied cause at its best.

Syria (1918).¹ In Africa the French in one place, the British in another, and the South Africans in another, occupied the former German colonies.

By March, 1918, the Germans under their commander-in-chief, Ludendorff (loo'den dorf), thought they were ready for their great drive in the west. Hoping to push the Allies apart, they smashed heavily at the point where the British troops and the French met. The Allied line was bent back, but not broken. Later the Germans pounded the British line, and then, in a third attack (July, 1918), the French part of the Allied line. Each time the Allies were pushed back, but the line itself held.

By this time the Allies had done what they should have done much earlier. They selected General Foch (fōsh) of France as commander-in-chief of the entire Allied army, thus making possible a unity of command that had before been lacking. When the Germans made their last great drive, they pushed forward a little too far for their own good and left a weak spot which Foch discovered. Promptly he attacked, and the Germans in turn had to retire.

Suddenly the whole complexion of the situation changed. Foch, after his first brilliant success, took the offensive himself. Instead of hammering with great masses at a single point, he hit the German line first here, then at another point, and never let up. The Germans, once driven out of their trenches, could no longer hold as before.

The American troops under General Pershing helped in Foch's first victory and then took their place to form the eastern third of the Allied line in France.² Their two great achievements were the straightening out of a curve in the Allied line known as the St. Mihiel (sān mē yě'l') Salient, and then a great push northward, driving the Germans out of the Argonne (ar gōn') Forest. Meanwhile the French and British steadily pushed the Germans back in northern France and in Belgium.

¹ The Turks had a saying that they would stay in Palestine until the Nile flowed into the country — and, of course, that did not seem very likely. But when Allenby was moving across the desert country between Egypt and Palestine, he piped water from the Nile to supply the needs of his army. So the Nile did come into Palestine after all, and the Turks were correct.

² United States troops participated in fighting at Cantigny (can tēn yē') in May, 1918, and then in July at Belleau (bel lō') Wood and Château Thierry (shā tō' tiě rē').

In September, 1918, the Allied troops moved northward from Saloniki against the Bulgarians and defeated them so badly that Bulgaria quit and signed an armistice. In October fresh losses caused Turkey to do likewise. In the same month the Italians routed the Austrian army, and Austria was obliged to sign an armistice.

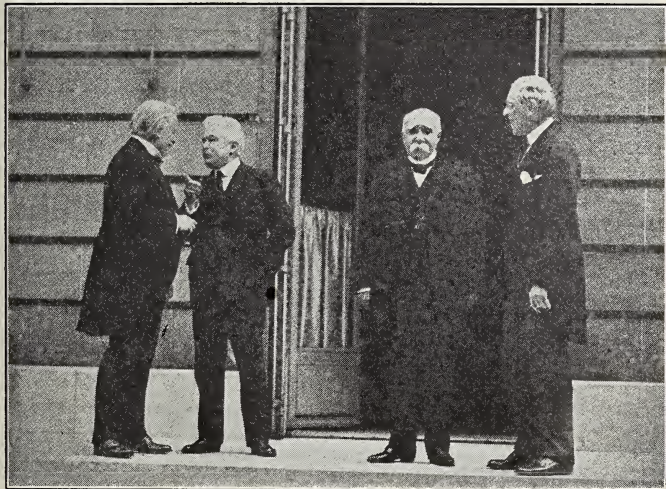
By this time the spirit of the German people was broken. Four years of hardship had drained their resources and energy. Their government proposed an armistice, with the understanding that peace would finally be made on the basis of President Wilson's Fourteen Points. Kaiser William II took refuge in Holland, leaving his country to look out for itself. The Allied leaders made the terms of the armistice severe, but the Germans had to accept it. It left the greater part of German soil free from foreign armies, and the Germans chose this alternative rather than to keep on fighting and have the Allies march to Berlin, as some insisted they ought to do. At eleven o'clock in the morning (European time) of November 11, 1918, the guns stopped firing all along the western front. Never had peace been welcomed more enthusiastically all over the world.

Do you see any reason why the Central Powers went to pieces so completely in a few months when for three years and a half things had been going their way? If you had been Kaiser in November, 1918, what do you think you would have done?

369. Trying to Make Peace.—It was decided to hold the peace conference at Paris; and there, early in 1919, came together an extraordinary assembly of the leaders of many nations. We may compare it with the Congress of Vienna just a little over 100 years before. Each conference had somewhat similar problems. But there were some differences. Those who went to Vienna were princes and other agents of the monarchs of their countries. The leaders at the Paris conference were in most cases the chosen representatives of their people. At Vienna the defeated power, France, had considerable voice in deciding what was done. At Paris the Germans had no chance to say anything, until the terms of the Allies were handed them in full.

Most of the important decisions at the conference were made by the "Big Four." Foremost in President Wilson's mind was the idea of founding a League of Nations to prevent future wars.

Premier Clemenceau (clĕ män sō') of France was determined above everything else to safeguard France from future German invasion. Lloyd George had been kept in power in Great Britain, after campaigning for re-election on the ridiculous slogan of making Germany pay the entire cost of the war. Prime Minister Orlando of Italy insisted that not only should Italy's just claims for Italia Irredenta be satisfied, but that secret treaties of which President Wilson said



THE "BIG FOUR" AT THE PEACE CONFERENCE
Lloyd George, Orlando, Clemenceau, Wilson.

he had never heard should be carried out. President Wilson and Orlando disagreed so seriously over the granting of Italy's claims that Orlando went home, and for a while the great decisions were made by the "Big Three" instead of the "Big Four."

When war ended, Wilson's name was the most popular in the civilized world. Oppressed people and war-weary nations in Europe looked upon him as a deliverer. He had set up lofty ideals for the world. But a few weeks before the armistice, he made a tactless statement about the Republican leaders in Congress, and they fought almost everything he proposed from that time on. But

he succeeded in getting his plan for the League of Nations included in all the treaties made in 1919 and 1920.

Would a better treaty have been produced if the Germans had had some part in working it out? Some of President Wilson's critics said that he should have stayed in the United States. Do you think so?



THE SIGNING OF THE VERSAILLES TREATY

Ewing Galloway

Here in the famous Hall of Mirrors in Louis XIV's palace occurred the event depicted by the English artist, Sir William Orpen. Do you recognize, from left to right at the table, the delegates from the United States — General Bliss, Colonel House, Henry White, Secretary Lansing, and President Wilson? Then come Clemenceau of France, Lloyd George of Great Britain, and other British leaders. The German delegates are on the side of the table nearest you.

370. Treaties and Their Terms. — It seemed necessary to make the treaty with Germany first. German leaders thought the proposed terms too severe; but on June 28, 1919, two lonesome representatives of the new German government stood at one side of the great table in the Hall of Mirrors at Versailles to sign their names, while on the other side were arrayed the delegates from the victorious countries. This was most humiliating for the Germans but rather pleasant for the French, who recalled keenly the events of January, 1871!

Before the end of the year 1919, treaties were signed at places near Paris with Austria and Bulgaria, and in 1920 the list was

completed with Hungary and Turkey. Turkey was left to the last because it was supposed to be so completely down and out that any time the Allies got around to attend to the matter would be soon enough. Later the Allies were greatly surprised at the progressive changes in government and social institutions which the Turks succeeded in making after the war, and this Turkish treaty was never put into operation.

Since the Germans had agreed to make peace on the basis of the Fourteen Points, it will be interesting to see how completely they were carried out. Some of them appeared in most of the five treaties, some in only one or two. The Covenant of the League of Nations formed the first part of every treaty.

Germany had to get out of Russia and Rumania, Belgium, and France, and give Alsace and Lorraine back to France. Germany was to pay "reparations" in the form of coal, cattle, and the like, or money, to Belgium, France, and some of the other Allies. German colonies were turned over to some of the Allied nations, to be cared for by them under the supervision of the League of Nations. The old Austria-Hungary was broken apart (§ 388). Italy received additional territory. Poland and Czechoslovakia became independent. Several shifts of territory in southeastern Europe took place, to the advantage of Rumania, Greece, and Yugoslavia, which was the name by which Serbia and some added provinces came to be known.

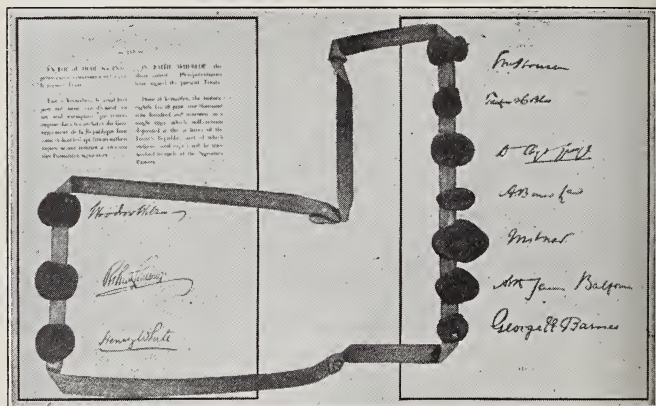
The former Turkish territories of Palestine, Iraq, and Syria were put under the care of Great Britain and France, as "mandates" from the League of Nations.

All these items were to a considerable extent in accordance with the Fourteen Points. But such matters as "the freedom of the seas" and the "removal of economic barriers between nations" could not easily be handled by a peace treaty. On such matters, on guaranteeing "open covenants openly arrived at," and on keeping national armaments down, the League of Nations would have to accept responsibility. We have mentioned only a few of the many details in the treaties. The Versailles treaty with Germany would itself make a fair-sized book.

For territorial changes in Europe, compare the maps following pages 518 and 748.

371. What the War Cost. — Some things you can never measure, and the cost of a war is one of them. You can guess somewhere nearly how much money was spent by the nations during the War; but how can you arrive at any definite figure when you try to count the cost of reconstruction, of pensions, of interest on debts, or of losses from debts unpaid? Millions of lives were lost and millions

of men became sick or crippled as a result of their war service — how will you reckon the value of a human life? An influenza epidemic visited the whole civilized world, and its victims were counted by the millions. Normal industry, farming, and every other activity of ordinary life for hundreds of millions of people were upset. Can you figure that loss? And the tragedy of it all is that it was only twenty years before another and greater World War began.



SOME OF THE SIGNATURES TO THE VERSAILLES TREATY

The signatures are pretty clear, except perhaps those of Tasker H. Bliss, D. Lloyd George, and A. Bonar Law.

The United States, the last of the great nations to go into the War, was left with a debt which reached \$25,000,000,000. She spent about one-tenth of her wealth on the War. The nations that were in the war longer than we were naturally spent much more, not only in money but in men. Great Britain's debt was 30 per cent of her wealth, and the debts of France and Italy were practically half of their wealth. It has been estimated that the nations that took part actually spent in money over \$186,000,000,000. The United States alone spent as much as all the nations of the world had spent on all the wars between the time of Napoleon and the



From a painting by Franz Leisner

ARMISTICE NIGHT IN LONDON.

Very few people in Britain, France, or Belgium felt with Winston Churchill that "Victory had been bought so dear as to be almost indistinguishable from defeat."

Courtesy of the Ladies' Home Journal—Copyrighted by the Curtis Publishing Co.

outbreak of the War! And to think that they "hadn't seen anything yet," for who would have dreamed what the next World War was going to cost?

If the population of the United States in 1920 was about 106,000,000, find out what the debt per person was at its highest. What is it today? Does the fact that the great majority of soldiers are relatively young men make the human cost of war still worse? Why do you suppose that when soldiers came back from the War, many of them did not care to talk about their experiences?

372. Passing Judgment on the War. —

During the War it was sincerely hoped and believed by many that this was a "war to end war." But in the making of the peace treaty seeds of new disagreements were sown. Germans complained about the severity of the peace terms, conveniently overlooking the terms they would have demanded if they had had the chance.

The terms they imposed on Russia at Brest-Litovsk, when they conquered her in the spring of 1918, were infinitely harsher than those the Allies imposed on them.

Perhaps some little good came from the War — never before did many people realize so clearly what a terrible thing war is. They became suspicious — perhaps too much so — of the motives of men who urge nations to spend great sums on national defense. It was certainly a gain when the military leaders of Germany were overthrown, though we were careless about preventing others from taking their places. Though the League of Nations did not become the great agency for good that we had dreamed of, it did accomplish enough so that we regret that we did not do more to make it effective.



GENERAL PERSHING IN ARLINGTON CEMETERY

The commander of the soldiers buried here bows in silent respect and sorrow. If he could only be sure they had not died in vain!

We shall probably never agree completely about placing the blame for this struggle. The Germans will never admit that Germany and her allies were entirely responsible for it. The willingness of German leaders to start another war twenty years later, however, cast doubts on the explanation she has offered in her defense for the earlier conflict. Some writers even went so far as to shift the burden of responsibility from the Central Powers to the Allies — at least to Serbia, Russia, and France. The murder of the Austrian Archduke was indeed wicked; but making war upon a nation even for the murder of an archduke is a pretty severe penalty. If Germany had stood on guard on her own frontiers instead of rushing into war with Russia before even Austria had done so, she might have had the sympathy of considerable of the neutral world, and have postponed, if not averted, World War I. And then we should probably have had no World War II.

Do you think people who understand history are more, or less, likely to be warlike in their attitudes toward other nations? Is it hard for writers of history to be entirely unprejudiced? Why or why not?

IDEAS TO STAY WITH US

There were numerous situations in Europe before 1914 which clearly might lead to trouble; yet comparatively few realized how easy it was going to be to wreck the peace of the world.

Much of the international rivalry in the half-century before 1914 centered around the rise of Germany, her boastfulness, and her feeling that other nations were jealous of her progress.

In spite of more talk about world peace and preventing war than ever before, nations went on building big armies and navies. The Triple Alliance and Triple Entente were supposed to set up a balance of power to preserve peace.

The most serious trouble flamed out in the Balkans. Four small Christian powers combined to beat the Turks; but when outsiders interfered in their peace arrangements, they got to fighting among themselves. The murder of Archduke Francis Ferdinand of Austria by a young Serbian was an excuse for measures which threw the world into war.

Austria's effort to punish Serbia was resisted by Russia. When Germany declared war upon Russia, Russia's ally, France, was brought in. Germany's invasion of Belgium was followed by Great

Britain's entrance, which in turn brought in her ally, Japan. Italy left her former allies and joined the western powers. Germany's submarine policy brought in the United States and many other powers which feared the end of democracy if Germany should win.

The war lasted somewhat over four years, and in the course of it many methods never before employed were used. In the first part of the war the results favored the Central Powers. Russia dropped out in 1917. In the summer of 1918 there was a sudden turn of events, and by November 11 all the Central Powers had stopped fighting on terms which would make it impossible for them to renew the war.

Making peace was a very difficult problem, and we can see now that the peace treaties contained some unfortunate features. They did, however, set up the League of Nations and tried to give independence to several new countries.

The cost of this war in money, life, and interruption to normal activity was more terrible than any previous one. It left the world distressed and chaotic with much less to show in good results than either side had expected.

NAMES AND TERMS WE SHOULD UNDERSTAND

- | | | |
|--------------------------------|-------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. "A place in the sun" | 14. Ultimatum | 29. A. E. F. |
| 2. Pan-Germanism | 15. Albert I | 30. Kerensky |
| 3. "Iron Ring" | 16. Grey | 31. Bolsheviki |
| 4. Triple Alliance | 17. Bethmann-Hollweg | 32. Lenin |
| 5. Triple Entente | 18. "Scrap of paper" | 33. Trotsky |
| 6. Secret diplomacy | 19. Battle of the Marne | 34. Allenby |
| 7. Militarism | 20. Joffre | 35. Lawrence |
| 8. Conscription | 21. Hindenburg | 36. Fourteen Points |
| 9. Arbitration | 22. Ludendorff | 37. Armistice |
| 10. Hague Conferences | 23. Haig | 38. Clemenceau |
| 11. Hague Court of Arbitration | 24. Lloyd George | 39. Orlando |
| 12. Pan-Slavism | 25. Foch | 40. Indemnities |
| 13. Sarajevo | 26. <i>Lusitania</i> | 41. Reparations |
| | 27. Wilson | 42. Versailles Treaty |
| | 28. Pershing | |

DATES WORTH REMEMBERING

- | | |
|------|------------------------------|
| 1878 | The Congress of Berlin |
| 1882 | Triple Alliance |
| 1894 | Dual Alliance |
| 1899 | First Hague Peace Conference |
| 1907 | Triple Entente |

- 1914 Outbreak of World War I
- 1917 Entrance of the United States into the War
- 1918 November 11, Armistice with Germany
- 1919 Treaty of Versailles

INTERESTING SUBJECTS YOU MAY LIKE TO KNOW ABOUT

Races and Nations in the Balkan Peninsula
 Kaiser William II
 The Hague Peace Conferences
 The Events of June 28 to August 4, 1914
 New Features of Warfare That Characterized World War I
 The Naval Side of World War I
 Great Commanders in World War I
 The Gallipoli Campaign and Its Importance
 The Signing of the Armistice and How It Was Received
 Personalities and Problems of the Peace Conference
 The Signing of the Versailles Treaty
 Woodrow Wilson's Place in World History

INTERESTING PROJECTS YOU MAY LIKE TO UNDERTAKE

1. Draw a map of Europe showing national boundaries as they were in 1914 and indicating the chief geographical features and most important cities, especially the capitals of different nations. Show Alsace-Lorraine, Italia Irredenta, and any other places of importance in the international relations of Europe from 1871 to 1914.

2. Make a map of Europe showing the western and eastern fronts during the war. Include at least the following locations:

Tannenberg	Brest-Litovsk	Château Thierry	Argonne	Calais	Ypres
Gallipoli	Piave River	Marne River	Verdun	Paris	Kiel
Saloniki	Liège	Lorraine	Jutland	Alsace	

By making separate maps of the eastern and western fronts it will be easier to indicate the movement of battle lines from year to year.

3. Make a map of Europe and of the world showing boundaries and territorial ownership as of 1923.

4. Show by different sizes of men, ships, and the like, the military and naval status of the various countries in 1914. Cartoons might also bring out situations in striking fashion.

5. Make sketches or models showing a trench in France in 1918, fighting planes used in the war, a tank, a submarine, a gas mask, a Big Bertha.

6. Make sketches of uniforms worn by soldiers in different armies; distinctive symbols of army corps, brigades, and the like; of markings on air-planes used in the war; and other symbols used by participants in various war activities.

7. Arrange dramatizations of some of the following: a conference of Austrian leaders in July, 1914; conferences of German leaders in 1914, 1916, 1918; a Cabinet meeting in London August 2, 1914; a Cabinet meeting in Washington August 2, 1914; conversations in an American home (four scenes): September, 1914; May, 1915; April, 1917; November, 1918; a conference of the Big Four at Paris early in 1919; a debate in the United States Senate on the Versailles Treaty.

8. Songs of World War I. (Narrative by one of the members of the class and music by the class or individuals.)

PLACES FOR FURTHER READING

Hayes, *Political and Social History of Modern Europe*, Vol. II, Chs. XXX-XXXIII

Robinson and Beard, *The Development of Modern Europe*, IX-XII

Wells, *Outline of History*, XXXIX

Barnes, *The Genesis of the World War* (pro-German)

Buchan, *History of the Great War*

Bullard, *Diplomacy of the Great War*

Davis, *The Roots of the War* (pro-Ally)

Fay, *The Origins of the World War*

Gerard, *My Four Years in Germany*

Gibbons, *And They Thought We Wouldn't Fight*

Gooch, *History of Modern Europe, 1878-1919*

Hazen, *Europe since 1815*

Lawrence, *Revolt in the Desert*

Plum and Benjamin, *Modern and Contemporary European History*

Rose, *Origins of the War*

Schmitt, *England and Germany*

Schmitt, *The Coming of the War*

Seymour, *The Diplomatic Background of the War*

Seymour, *Woodrow Wilson and the World War*

Turner, *Europe since 1870*

Usher, *The Story of the Great War*

Watkins and Williams, *The Forum of Democracy*

Aldrich, *The Hilltop on the Marne*

Austin, *According to Orders*

Beith, *The First Hundred Thousand*

Bishop, *Bob Thorpe*

Cenliffe, *Poems of the Great War*

Clarke, *A Treasury of War Poetry*

Dyer, *Pierrot, a Dog of Belgium*

Hankey, *A Student in Arms*

Lauder, *A Minstrel in France*

Mundy, *Hira Singh*

Newbolt, *Tales of the Great War*

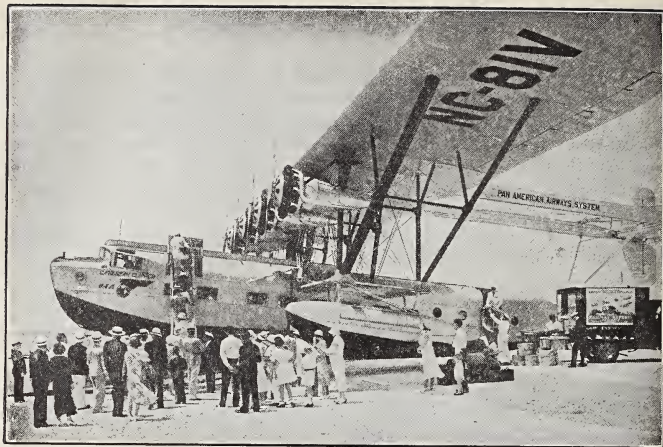
Remarque, *All Quiet on the Western Front*

Remarque, *The Road Back*

Walpole, *The Dark Forest*

Walpole, *The Secret City*

Wells, *Mr. Brilling Sees It Through*



A SYMBOL OF MAN'S ACHIEVEMENTS

Man has made himself so far the master of the air that for one whole year no passenger lost his life in the United States while traveling on the airways. One may travel over much of the New World and the Old in times of peace in such craft as this. Would that these planes might always be messengers of peace! We have only to look at war pictures in the papers, however, to realize that terrible devastation can be wrought from the air.

XVII. FROM ONE WAR TO ANOTHER

*So the Evil's triumph sendeth, with a terror and a chill,
Under continent to continent, the sense of coming ill.*

*For mankind are one in spirit, and an instinct bears along,
Round the earth's electric circle, the swift flash of right or wrong.*

— LOWELL

Destroying and rebuilding — and now it seems as if we rebuild only to destroy again! It was only twenty years after World War I closed before every peacefully-minded person was worrying as to whether there would be another war to engulf all civilized people. It is not a pleasant task to tell the story of those years, because it includes so much disappointment, so much double-crossing, so much cruelty and dishonor. But it must be told if we are going to discover how to correct the blunders we made and are to keep on trying to make the world the right kind of place to live in. Now we in the United States realize as we never did before that what happens in the rest of the world may make a big difference to us. Let us hope that we have not realized this truth too late.

Pointers for Our Study :

What sore spots and danger points either survived the War or came into existence because of it ?

What problems confronted practically all the civilized world ?

How much was accomplished by the movements that were meant to promote peace and co-operation among the nations ?

How did a new world war get under way ?

Why and how did the dictators have so many successes ?

What lessons from the past should nations keep in mind ?

How did the United Nations learn to co-operate for victory ?

373. Sore Spots Left by the War. — It has been easy to find fault with the work of the Paris peace-makers. But when we think of the many problems they had to deal with, we may conclude that they could have made more and worse mistakes. To give independent Poland its outlet to the sea, a "Corridor" was cut through German territory to the Baltic, separating East Prussia from the rest of Germany. To make sure that Poland would have a port, the German city of Danzig was established as a "free city" under a High Commissioner appointed by the League of Nations. But Poland wanted her own port instead of one that belonged to nobody in particular, and therefore she built a new one named Gdynia (gdin'ia). This Polish Corridor gave the Germans one more grievance.

Compare the map facing page 390, the one on page 400, and the one following page 748 to understand Poland's geographical situation.

Germany's loss of its colonies was another grievance, though their colonies were never of great value to them. The Saar Valley, off the northeast boundary of France, was taken away from Germany. It was not given over to France, but was administered under the League of Nations for fifteen years. In 1935 its inhabitants voted to go back under German rule.

Other "sore spots" were those where part of the people were of one race or religion, and part of another. The less numerous groups were often referred to as *minorities*. Sometimes the ruling groups imposed harsh regulations on the minority ; sometimes it was the minority that caused trouble. President Wilson had advocated what he called *self-determination*, meaning that peoples should decide for themselves how they would be governed. But if every

little dissatisfied group was to be allowed to do exactly as it wanted to, many parts of Europe could never hope to get together. Besides, some boundaries were not definitely fixed by the peace treaties, and some were drawn in such a way as to leave many people dissatisfied.

Another cause of worry was the fact that Russia's new rulers encouraged the working classes in the "capitalist" countries to try to overturn things there and make them like Russia. In Hungary a Communist government was started under a leader named Bela Kun, but it was short-lived. Even in Germany some attempt was made to set up Communism. Some German aid even found its way to Finland, which had its own troubles in keeping itself free from the new Bolshevik state. Poland also had considerable fighting with the Russians before both sides settled down.

Are you surprised that there was so much unrest in central and eastern Europe in 1919 and 1920 when you think how delighted everybody in this country and western Europe seemed to be at the coming of peace? What do you think you would have done if you had been allowed to draw the boundaries of Poland after World War I?

374. Paying for the War. — When people are engaged in a life-and-death struggle, they are willing to make all kinds of sacrifices, and there is work for all. But when a war is over, this special work comes to an end. A big war is almost sure to be followed sooner or later by a period of business distress.

The same thing happened in Europe and America. Peaceful trade was slow in getting under way. Those who could produce goods could not get people to buy them. Great Britain was one of the first countries to be hard hit. France felt the depression later than some, because for a little while it had much to do in rebuilding the regions laid waste by the War. After two or three years of depression, the United States entered a period of what seemed like prosperity, but it proved to have no sound foundation, and suddenly, beginning in 1929, its business and financial life was shaken from top to bottom.

Nations then tried to encourage manufacturing at home by raising their tariffs and putting duties on more kinds of imports. Even Great Britain did this. Such policies meant that trade between the nations would be cut down further than ever.

The money systems of several nations went completely to smash. Austria and Hungary were given help by the League of Nations in rebuilding their finances, and for a time seemed to be doing reasonably well. Germany and Russia tried to supply money by the simple means of printing it. German paper marks went down so that it took millions of them to equal a United States dollar or an English paper pound, and Russia's rubles went so completely bad that nobody else would look at them except by way of curiosity. Italy and France reduced the value of their lira and franc to one-fifth or less of what it had been before World War I. Even Great Britain

(1931) and the United States (1933) went off the gold standard — that is, they were no longer willing to exchange gold for other kinds of money. And the United States reduced the amount of gold it called a dollar from 23.22 grains to 13.71 grains.

Would unemployment in one great nation have any effect on unemployment in another? Speaking generally, are all nations better off if no nation is in financial distress? Why does the passing of laws levying very high tariffs sometimes work against the interests of the nations that pass such laws?

We have seen that every nation in the War came out with a tremendous debt. Most of this debt was owed to the home people who had bought the bonds their government offered them, but there was also enormous borrowing between governments. The Czar's government borrowed from France, France borrowed from Great Britain, Great Britain and others borrowed from the United States.



GERMAN MONEY IN 1923

This shows German paper of that year far from its worst, though at the time this piece of money was issued, it was worth about half a cent. A 5000-mark note became so worthless that a beggar felt insulted if you gave it to him. Ten years before it would have been worth \$1200.00.

During the war and shortly afterwards, the United States government lent about \$10,000,000,000 to various governments. All the borrowers started to repay the loans at reduced interest rates, but all except Finland had stopped paying at the time a new war broke out.



KAISER WILLIAM II IN RETIREMENT

Compare him in this picture with those on pages 507 and 710. His estate in Doorn, Holland, was spared by the Nazi troops when they invaded that country in 1940. There he died in June, 1941, and there he is buried.

The Allied governments hoped to get enough from Germany in the form of "reparations" to pay at least part of what they owed, but the Germans declared they could not pay what they were asked to, and showed very plainly that they were not going to try to do so. The sending of French and Belgian troops into Germany's great manufacturing center, the Ruhr (röör) district only intensified German bitterness. Neither did plans for payment, worked out on two occasions with the help of Charles G.

Dawes and Owen D. Young, of the United States, bring more than temporary relief.

There was much controversy over the non-payment of debts by Allied governments to the United States. Try to find out what these arguments might be.

375. The Fate of Democracy. — "The world must be made safe for democracy," President Wilson had said, but the results of the War in this respect were disappointing. It is true the king business had certainly been made much less attractive. The Czar and his family were murdered; the Kaiser took refuge in Holland; the Emperor of Austria died and his successor became an exile; the Sultan of Turkey was overthrown. But after a few years, several countries fell under the rule of men who made no secret of their

contempt for democracy. Mussolini in Italy, Hitler in Germany, Lenin and Stalin in Russia, and the military crowd that got control of Japan, either despised democracy or accomplished their ends without authority from their people.

Most of the new countries which came into being after the War called themselves republics. Czechoslovakia and Finland made excellent records as long as their big neighbors let them alone. Esthonia, Latvia, Lithuania, and Poland most of the time kept the form of republics, but sometimes they became little dictatorships. The republic set up in Spain in 1931 was upset by a revolution which began in 1936 and ended (1939) in another dictatorship headed by General Franco.

The people who organized in Germany a republic under a constitution were doubtless sincere, but when things did not go well, the German people wondered whether liberty was worth the trouble of having it. Austria, too, tried to be a republic, but it did not know how, and finally lost its independence. Turkey, however, surprised everybody (§ 384). Its great leader, Mustapha Kemal, set up a government which kept on after his death more like a republic than ever.

If the extension of the right to vote means the spread of democracy, we might think that democracy's gains had been considerable. Naturally much depends on what you have a right to vote for. In Russia, Germany, and Italy, for instance, it was usually uncomfortable to vote for anybody except those who were already in power. Even the dictators, however, sometimes threw open the right to vote very widely, while making it pretty sure that they could tell in advance how most of the people were going to vote. Numerous countries, including Germany, the Soviet Union, the Scandinavian countries, Great Britain, and the United States gave women the right to vote on the same terms as men.

Do people who are not willing to go to the trouble to vote deserve to have the privilege? What else is needed to make democracy successful besides giving all adults the right to vote? Has the failure of democracy in some countries been the result of weakness in democracy itself, or of the lack of experience in self-government on the part of the people?

376. The League of Nations. — Here was a great idea. The League was a little slow in getting started, because other countries

waited for the United States. President Wilson, who more than any other one man was responsible for the League, antagonized some of the leaders of the Republican party so much that they would not approve the peace treaty which had provided for the League unless "reservations" were tacked on it, which the President was too stubborn to accept. At Geneva, Switzerland, in December, 1920, however, representatives from many nations that had signed the peace treaties, and some that had not, came together and set in motion the machinery of the League.

The League's work centered in three activities, those of the Council, the Assembly, and the Secretariat. The Council exercised the chief power of deciding what the League would or would not do. In the beginning it was to be made up of nine members, and the number was later enlarged to fourteen. Five nations, the United States, the British Empire, France, Italy, and Japan were mentioned in the League Covenant (or constitution) as being entitled to permanent membership on the Council. Other nations were to be elected from time to time by the Assembly to serve as members of the Council.

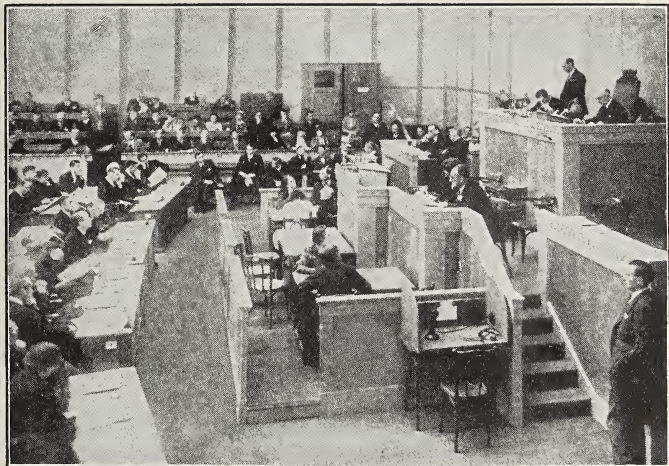
The Assembly included delegates from every nation belonging to the League. It met at least once a year at Geneva, and also held special meetings. Every member, large or small, had one vote in the Assembly. This Assembly gave all countries a means of discussing world affairs such as had never before been provided. As many as sixty nations have been members of the League at one time or another. But when something was done in the name of the League which did not please some members, they took advantage of the privilege they had under the Covenant to quit. Some of the excuses for leaving were very childish.

The Secretariat, managed by the Secretary-General, was responsible for handling the regular routine business of the League, looking after its work of registering treaties, receiving and caring for reports of committees, and doing other things necessary to keep the League going.

Why did the League not accomplish more? One reason is that the United States failed to join. That left the control of the League in the hands of European powers, and gave critics the chance to say that it was managed in the interests of certain mem-

bers rather than of the League as a whole. Besides, the great powers at times would not risk their own peace or profit by doing what was necessary to make a League decision mean something.

Yet the League really did a number of good things. It helped to return to their homes hundreds of thousands of people who had



A SESSION OF THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS ASSEMBLY

It was at the session shown here, held in September, 1934, that Russia was admitted to full membership in the League. The President of the Assembly at this session was Herr Sandler of Sweden. Five years later Russia was expelled for its attack on Finland.

been driven into exile during the War. It tried to abolish the opium traffic and the white-slave trade. It encouraged governments to co-operate in controlling epidemics and in spreading the results of intellectual and scientific accomplishments. It established the International Labor Organization to improve the conditions of working people all over the world. Even the United States decided to have a part in the activities of the I. L. O.

If the League had been proposed apart from the peace treaties, would it have been more successful? Were there any sound reasons why citizens of the United States might oppose membership in the League?

The Covenant of the League of Nations provided for the "Permanent Court of International Justice," which was commonly called the World Court. It met at the Hague, and was made up of fifteen judges chosen by the League Council and League Assembly for nine years. Our Presidents wanted the United States to join the Court, but they were not able to get the necessary two-thirds of the Senate to approve the proposition, even though a citizen of the United States was always included as one of the judges. A number of important cases were submitted to this court, in spite of the fact that its members were not compelled to make use of it.

The Charter of the United Nations has provided for a similar court under the name of the International Court of Justice.

What arguments do you suppose could be offered against the support of the Court by the United States? Would any country risk anything in supporting the Court?

377. Efforts to Keep Peace. — One important conference was held at Washington in the fall and winter of 1921-1922. Though President Harding would not consent to the entrance of the United States into the League of Nations, he wanted to do something to promote peace. So at his invitation nine countries that had interests in the islands of the Pacific Ocean or in lands bordering on it sent representatives to talk over their common problems. The most important decision reached was that the leading nations should get rid of some of the big ships in their navies, and that they would establish the ratio of 5 : 5 : 3 among the three largest navies of the world — that is, the United States and Great Britain might have navies of the same size, and Japan a navy three-fifths the size of theirs.

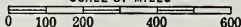
President Hoover and Prime Minister Ramsay MacDonald of Great Britain arranged for a conference held in London in 1930 to carry the disarmament movement further. For a time the Japanese went along with the idea, but when in 1935 they refused to accept any more restrictions, this way toward peace was blocked.

Meantime, some sincere efforts were being made in Europe to remove causes of war. Aristide Briand of France and Gustav Stresemann (strā'sě män) of Germany held a conference at Locarno

EUROPE, AUGUST, 1938

Capitals-----★

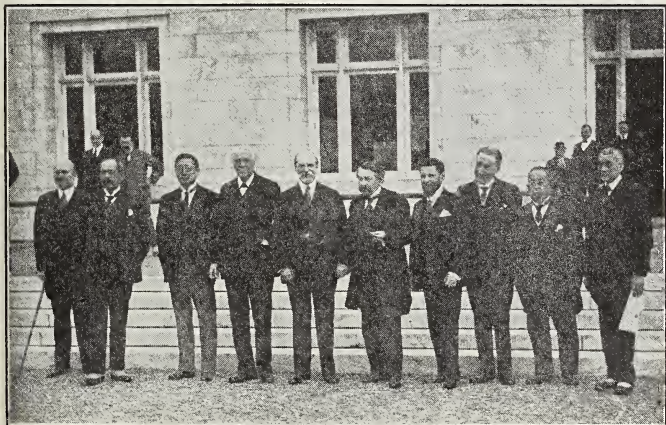
SCALE OF MILES





in Switzerland in the fall of 1925, at which it was agreed that the existing boundaries between France, Germany, and Belgium should be permanent, and that Germany should come into the League of Nations.

Briand also worked with Secretary of State Kellogg of the United States to put through another movement against war. We commonly refer to it as the Pact of Paris. They succeeded in getting



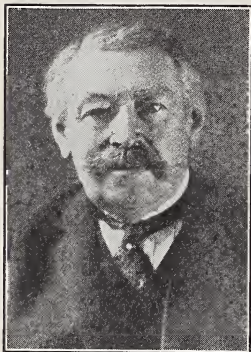
THE LEADING DELEGATES TO THE WASHINGTON CONFERENCE OF 1921-1922

In this group, beginning at the left, are Garrett, Secretary of the Conference, Karnebeck of Holland, Sze of China, Balfour of Great Britain, Hughes of the United States, Briand of France, Schanzer of Italy, Cartier of Belgium, Tokugawa of Japan, and D'Alt of Portugal.

fifteen nations and dominions to sign this document (1928) in which they renounced war "as an instrument of national policy." As many as sixty governments altogether accepted this agreement. However, as it provided no way to punish a nation which disregarded its pledge, the Pact was able to accomplish practically nothing.

Look up the terms of this Pact of Paris. Why do you suppose so many nations said they wanted peace if they were not willing to live up to what they said? Would it be safe for any nation to break up its navy and disband its army unless its neighbors did the same?

378. Post-War France. — France for a while experienced the somewhat unusual feeling of being on the top of the heap. Premier Clemenceau had so influenced the peace settlement as to give every reasonable security to France against Germany. Poincaré (pwān cā rā'), who at different times served France as both President and Premier, was one of those responsible for severity toward Germany. We can understand why the French people felt the way they did toward Germany, whether that attitude was wise or not.



ARISTIDE BRIAND

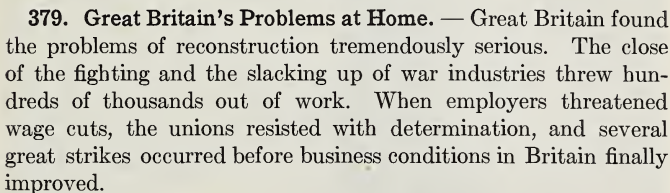
He worked hard for France and for world peace.

The financial problems of the French Government were sometimes serious. One Premier, Edmund Herriot (ēr ĭ ō'), did well in office, but lost out when he tried to induce the Chamber of Deputies to pay an installment on the interest France owed to the United States government. The so-called "Popular Front" came into power in France for a period under the lead of the Socialist Léon Blum, but they tried to go so far with a "new deal" in labor and business relations that conditions became very much disturbed. Edouard Daladier and Paul Reynaud were the last Premiers of France under the constitution of the Third Republic.

France looked with wonder and perhaps dismay at the growing strength of Mussolini in Italy and also was distressed by Hitler's activities in Germany (§ 382). When, contrary to existing treaties, Hitler moved German troops into the Rhineland (1936), the French did not think it wise to do anything about it. Ever since, they have regretted their failure to take action.

France kept up one of the largest armies in Europe, and built the so-called Maginot Line to keep out possible German invasion on her northeastern frontier. Later events proved that dependence on this was one of the worst blunders a nation ever made.

If you had lived in France during the ten years after World War I, what policy toward Germany do you think you would have advocated?

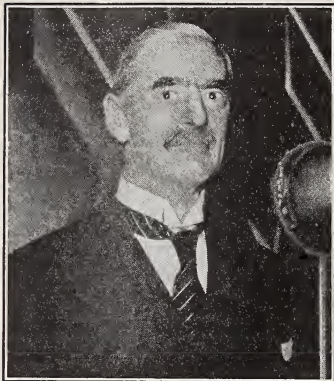


For about fifteen years after the overthrow of Lloyd George, Stanley Baldwin for the Conservatives and Ramsay MacDonald for the Labor party alternated as Prime Minister. MacDonald had risen from the humblest beginnings to be the first of his party to hold the most important office in the country. He retired from office in 1935 on account of ill health, and died two years later. Baldwin resigned in 1937 and was succeeded by Neville Chamberlain.

Chamberlain represented the old families of England whose chief interest had been in the field of business. They wanted to avoid war so that business could continue on a normal basis, and failed to realize the disaster that was to come because they ignored unpleasant developments on the continent of Europe. Only Winston Churchill and a few others had the vision to see the danger.

Does Ramsay MacDonald's rise to power indicate that there is a good deal of democracy in English politics? Was the unwillingness of British business men to prepare for war any worse than the attitude of many Americans at this time?

380. Great Britain's Problems Abroad. — Some of Great Britain's problems abroad have been considered in speaking of British problems in India and of its relations with Ireland (§§ 350-353).



A PRIME MINISTER WHO LOST OUT

Neville Chamberlain led the British government through nearly three critical years. He meant well, but the majority of his people concluded that he was not sufficiently energetic and foresighted.

In Europe it was first Russia, then Mussolini, and then Hitler that caused the most worry to Britain, while France was considered her best friend.

At first Great Britain did not officially recognize the Russian Soviet government. She did not want communism to run wild in Europe, and hoped that a strong Germany might help to prevent it. But when Russia became willing to trade freely with Great Britain, it seemed good policy to deal more kindly with Russia. It was hoped that Russia might turn out to be, if not a real democracy, at least a country with democratic sympathies.

Mussolini's ambitions in Africa were also annoying. Great Britain, along with other leading members of the League of Nations, tried to use the League to check Mussolini's conquest of Ethiopia (§ 383), but they did not dare to go far enough to accomplish anything.

As for Hitler, at first the British did nothing to interfere with his plans in central Europe, but when they did decide to resist him, their efforts were, it was sometimes said, "too little and too late." Like many other peoples and governments, they did not realize how awful a menace he and his ambitions could be.

In Asia Great Britain lost prestige when it failed to back up the

United States and the League of Nations in opposing Japanese conquests in China (§ 331). With all the problems that Britain had to face in Europe, however, she did not feel like getting into too much hot water in the Far East.

Great Britain did rather well by regions given her under mandates by the League of Nations. Iraq (old Mesopotamia) was



A TYPICAL PALESTINE SCENE

Ewing Galloway

This was taken outside the Jaffa Gate at Jerusalem,

helped to become an independent kingdom. Palestine has prospered, though not as it could have done if there had been continued peace. During the first World War the government promised to encourage its use as a national home for the Jews. The Arabs, who constitute a large majority of the population of Palestine, became very resentful when the Jews wished to come in in large numbers. In 1939 the British announced that they would admit only a limited number of Jewish immigrants — a change which was very unpopular with those who had already come and others who

wanted to do so. Good highways have been built and productive orchards and farms encouraged, power and light systems set up, using water power from the Jordan, and chemicals from the Dead Sea developed into important items of trade. Transjordan, now usually called Jordan, has become independent under a native prince. Its independence is now recognized.

Is there anything in the Bible on which to base the proposal to re-establish the Jewish population in Palestine? Who are the Zionists?



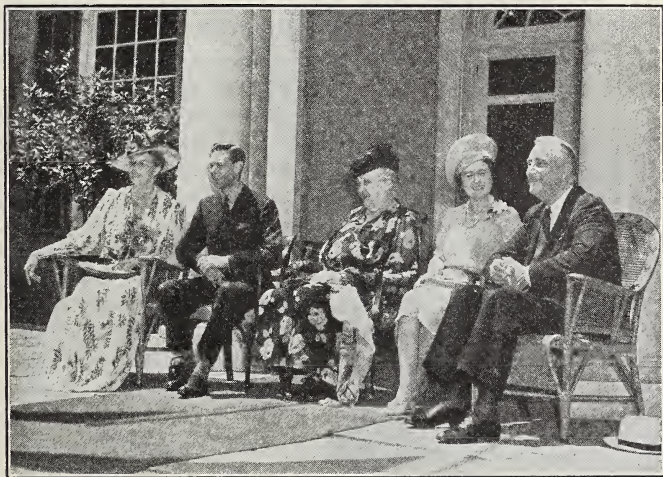
THE WAILING WALL

To this place at the foot of the hill on which stood Solomon's Temple Jewish men and women come from time to time. Whether they are lamenting the lost glories of Zion or making this act a personal confession and prayer is something that perhaps only the individual himself or herself could tell.

During the years after World War I the British leaders showed many evidences that they wanted the good will of the United States. Our Presidents have been anxious to develop that good will. The high spot of these efforts came in the journey of King George VI and Queen Elizabeth to the Dominion of Canada in 1939. Several days of their trip were devoted to a visit to Washington and New York, where they were most cordially received not only by the President but by the people as a whole.

381. The Troubles of the German Republic. — The German Republic came into existence under very unfavorable circum-

stances. The German people were disheartened by defeat, and by what they looked upon as a very severe peace treaty. Early in 1919 a special assembly, meeting at Weimar (vī'mär), drew up a constitution for Germany as a federal republic. It was to have a president chosen for seven years by the people, with a chancellor and other ministers. The law-making branch was to include two



THE HEADS OF TWO GOVERNMENTS

The King and Queen of Great Britain and the President of the United States and his wife met in Washington in the spring of 1939, and also spent a day at the President's home at Hyde Park, New York. The President's mother also appears in the group in this picture, which was taken at Hyde Park.

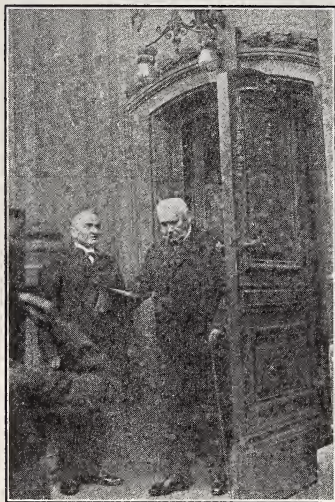
houses. Friedrich Ebert (ā'bert), a saddle-maker by trade, was elected the first president under the new constitution. When he died in 1925 Germany's war hero, Paul von Hindenburg, already seventy-eight years old, was chosen in his place.

The period of "inflated" paper money wiped out the savings of many of its people. It was not easy to get back the markets for German goods which had been lost during the War. Money was borrowed from western Europe and the United States to re-establish Germany's currency system and help her industries get

going again. For a few years this borrowed money fooled its lenders and the German people into thinking that things were better than they were. When conditions became bad again, the Germans came to associate them with the republican form of government.

How would you have felt if you were a German business man in 1923 and could not tell from one day to the next how much your country's money would be worth? Are prosperous countries more likely to be peaceful than those which are depressed?

382. The Rise of Hitler. — A sour and dispirited Germany turned to new leadership.



GERMANY'S LAST PRESIDENT

President Hindenburg, who was much respected both while in that office and while leading the German armies in the World War, is seen in this picture on his eightieth birthday leaving home to go to church.

Adolf Hitler, an Austrian by birth, who had once tried to stir up a revolution in Germany, began again to preach that he and his associates were the ones to get Germany out of its troubles. They called themselves National Socialists, but for short were usually referred to as Nazis (nā'tsīz). Wearing brown shirts and using the swastika as a symbol, they terrorized or hypnotized the Germans into being willing to take Hitler as their Fuehrer (that is, Leader).

Hitler and his crowd talked about regaining for Germany the land and glory she had lost, promised to put the unemployed to work, blamed the Jews for most of Germany's troubles, and by appealing to all kinds of discontented people gained a steadily increasing

following. In the presidential election in 1932 Hitler ran second to Hindenburg as a candidate. To keep Hitler quiet, he was

offered a place in the Cabinet, but he would take nothing but the chancellorship. In 1933 President Hindenburg gave in and appointed him chancellor. Soon Hitler obtained from the Reichstag a vote practically turning over to him all its own powers and making him a dictator for a four-year period. When Hindenburg died in 1934, Hitler allowed nobody to become president, but took practically all power into his own hands.

Hitler and the Nazis boasted of the superiority of the Aryan race, and hounded the Jews out of places of prominence in business, the universities, and the professions. Hitler pretended that he was anxious to strengthen Germany against communism, which he claimed might come into Germany from Russia. But it turned out that the real object of the Nazis was to set themselves up as brutal tyrants who would rule Germany and make it feared by all its neighbors. All rival political parties and organizations were disbanded, and the radio and newspapers so brought under control that nobody could, even if he dared, restrain the Nazi tyranny.

Hitler took Germany out of the League of Nations and started building up an army, navy, and air force. By re-establishing compulsory military service and planning vast preparations for war, he made it appear that he had got rid of unemployment. In 1936, in violation of the Locarno Treaty, he sent troops into the zone along the Rhine. In elections, at which the only safe way to vote was "ja," the German people seemed to approve his policies. He pretended to want peace in Europe, but it seemed plain before long that the only peace Europe could have would be on Hitler's terms.

Could such things as these happen in Great Britain or the United States? Were the Germans not yet ready for a republic, or was the failure of the republic the result of particularly unfavorable conditions?

383. Mussolini's Fascist State.—When World War I came to an end, Italy was in bad shape. Industry was seriously upset. Some Italian workmen tried to set up a system like Russia's, even demanding the right to run the factories to suit themselves. There was little law and order in the country.

In this state of affairs, Benito Mussolini (bā nē'to mōōs sō lē'nē), who had once been a Socialist himself, organized a new group

whom he called Fascisti (fä shēst'ē). Imitating Garibaldi's "Red Shirts" of 1860, these people wore black shirts. They set up the theory that the state had the right to the absolute allegiance of every individual and full authority over him. This doctrine,



BENITO MUSSOLINI

Most pictures of Mussolini show him in uniform. This was taken at an Armistice Day service in November, 1939.

which we sometimes refer to as *totalitarian*, maintains that the state has complete power in every field of human interest. They did not advocate the wiping out of private property, but insisted on entire control of what private citizens might do. Employers and employees were organized in *corporations* or *syndicates*. Strikes and lockouts were forbidden, and labor disputes were settled by special courts.

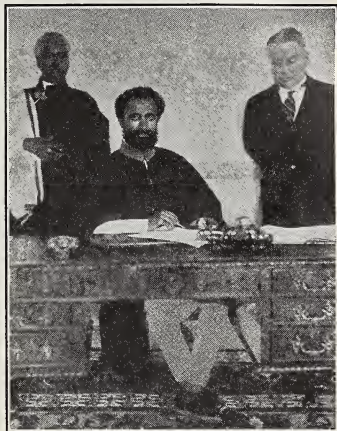
The "Black Shirts" formed semi-military companies in almost every part of Italy. One night in October, 1922, several armed bands headed for Rome and camped outside the city. King Victor Emmanuel III, knowing that civil war would follow an attempt to break up the Black Shirts, decided to yield to them,

and asked Mussolini to become prime minister. Calling himself *Il Duce* (ēl dōō'chē), "the leader," Mussolini not only became prime minister, but frequently held several other cabinet positions. No political parties were allowed except his Fascist party. He had nothing but contempt for democracy.

The king and the royal family were allowed to keep their titles and social position, but that was all. A body composed of representatives of the "corporations" was set up in place of the parliament which Italy used to have. Even local governments

lost all authority over their own affairs. Rome, Naples, and Milan, each with a population of over a million, may have had orderly government, but not through officials of their own choice.

What should we think of Mussolini? He established order in Italy and cleaned up dirty cities. Railroads were improved, and many of them equipped with electric power. The Pontine Marshes to the southeast of Rome were drained so as to give Italy several million acres of new rich farm land. School attendance was enforced, and Italy's bad record for illiteracy improved. Mussolini also settled the long-standing trouble with the Pope (§ 277) in 1929 by setting up Vatican City as an independent government. He did nothing to antagonize the Catholic Church in Italy, but after a time imitated Hitler in ill-treating the Jews.



ONE SIGNER OF THE PACT OF PARIS

The former Emperor of Ethiopia was attaching his name to this document as the United States minister to his country looked on. Did it do him any good? At least, he could come back later.

Other nations at first did not know what to make of Mussolini. Many of his public pretensions were nothing but bluff, but no other country dared to try him out. At first he protected Austria when it was threatened by German Nazis, but a little later entered into an agreement with Germany and Japan under the pretense of uniting against communism. People spoke of the "Rome-Berlin Axis" as if on that the history of all Europe was to turn. He picked a quarrel with Ethiopia and then conquered it (1935, 1936), in spite of an effort by the League of Nations to stop him. In April, 1939, he seized Albania. He did not enter the second World War until he thought the time was favorable. Within a year he was only a pitiable stooge for Hitler.

If a larger proportion of the people of Italy had been educated, do you think Mussolini would have been able to make himself master of the country? Why do you suppose he permitted the royal family to hold their social position?

384. Mustapha Kemal Builds a New Turkey. — To call Mustapha Kemal another dictator like Hitler and Mussolini would be an insult. He did tell his country what to do for a period of sixteen years, but in that time he defended it against attack, taught his



THE MAKER OF THE NEW TURKEY

Mustapha Kemal, though he first gained fame as a soldier, gave his country a place among the enlightened peaceful nations of the world — a dictator who founded a republic.

people how to govern themselves, and gained for a country that had seemed down-and-out the respect of the civilized world. In transforming Turkey he accomplished more in ten years than many nations did in ten centuries.

A new treaty at Lausanne in 1923 recognized the title of the Turks to practically all of Asia Minor and the land in Europe which they still held, including Constantinople. The name of that famous city was changed to Istanbul (ĭstān bōōl'), and Smyrna became Izmir (ĭz'meer). A new capital was built at An'kara (or Angora) in the heart of the province of Anatolia, and

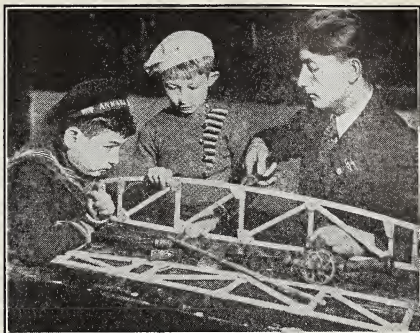
the dusty little town made into a proud modern community.

A million Greeks were forced to go back to Greece from Asia Minor, and several hundred thousand Turks or other Moham-medans were transferred to Turkey from the Balkan Peninsula. A constitution adopted in 1925 declared Turkey to be a republic, with a president elected for four years, and a cabinet. There is a national assembly composed of deputies elected for four years. All men and women may vote and hold office with no distinction of religion or race. Mustapha Kemal, who took the new family name of Ataturk, was elected to three terms as president and started

another. At his death in 1938 Ismet Inonu was chosen to succeed him. Believe it or not, these reforms have taken place in Turkey since 1921 :

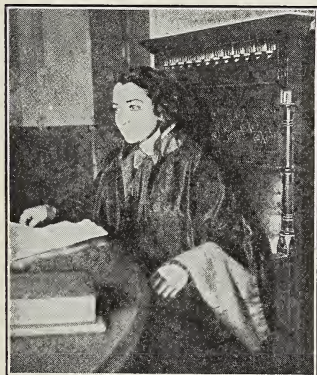
1. The office of Sultan has disappeared, and his place as the spiritual head of Mohammedanism has been abolished.

2. Mohammedanism is no longer the established religion. All religions may be observed, but there may be no religious teaching as such in any school, Turkish or foreign. Sunday, not Friday, is now the weekly holiday.



BOYS AND AIRPLANES THE WORLD OVER

These young Turkish boys, who show the same interest in aviation that many boys in our own country feel, are fine examples of the new day in Turkey.



WOMEN'S RIGHTS IN TURKEY

Not only have women been emancipated from the harem and the seclusion of the old days, but they may make their way to any place for which their talents qualify them. Here is Suat Hanum, Turkey's first woman judge.

3. Polygamy has been abolished; all marriages must be registered; each family must have a family name.

4. A complete new code of law based on the laws of Switzerland, Italy, and Germany is in operation.

5. The calendar used by western Europe has been adopted.

6. The Arabic letters, which Turkey used so long, have been done away with and a new alphabet, in most respects like that of western Europe, has been substituted.

7. Schools have been provided for pupils of all grades. In three years illiteracy was cut in half.

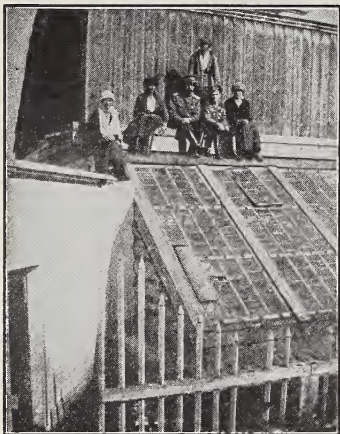
8. Women are as free as men in social life, public or private.

9. The wearing of the fez is forbidden, and both men and women dress as in western Europe.

10. Railroads have been extended and efforts made to increase manufactures and to improve mining, agriculture, and commerce.

How much do you think the adoption of a new alphabet, western dress, and other changes, did toward making the Turks think of themselves as an efficient modern people? Was Turkey really better off for losing Iraq, Syria, Palestine, and Arabia in World War I? Do you suppose the changes that were made in Turkey were welcomed by all its people?

385. The Making of the U. S. S. R. — When in 1918 the Bolshevik leaders, Lenin and Trotsky, wanting to try out their ideas



THE LAST "WINTER PALACE" OF THE ROMANOFFS

Czar Nicholas II and his family are shown here prisoners of the Bolsheviks just a little while before they were murdered. What a contrast between this picture and that on page 527!

in government and economics, were so ready to make peace on any terms that the Germans would agree to, it is not surprising that the governments of the Allies looked upon the Russians as traitors. They even sent some troops into Russia to help those elements in the country that were opposed to Bolshevik rule, but the only result seemed to be to strengthen the Bolshevik leaders, for they could pretend to be defending their country against foreign enemies.

Yet the new Russian leaders had no easy time in making themselves solid in Russia. The Russian leaders set up what they called the "Red Terror," after the fashion of the radicals in the French Revolution, ex-

cept that the Russians did it on a tremendously wider scale. Anybody who dared to disagree with the new policy might be executed or imprisoned. A villainous secret police known as the Cheka (chĕk'a) — later succeeded by the Og'pu — might be dogging any man's footsteps or listening at any keyhole. Bolshevik leaders themselves bragged about putting to death over 1,000,000 people in establishing their authority.

The government which they set up was supposed to represent

the "workers, soldiers, and peasants," but it was controlled solely by the leaders of the Communist party, which never has included as many as five per cent of the people of the country. Their system was organized on the basis of soviets. A *soviet* is a sort of council supposed to represent some particular class, such as manual workers, soldiers, or peasants. Local soviets elect representatives to provincial soviets, and these in turn choose representatives to a higher organization. The supreme authority is supposed to be the All-Union Congress of Soviets. Officials known as *commissars* form a sort of cabinet. No parties but the Communist are allowed to exist.

Lenin, whom the people were taught to look upon as the liberator of Russia, died in 1924. His body is preserved in Moscow, the new capital of the country, and is the object of a kind of reverence by millions each year who go to look upon it. After Lenin's death, Joseph Stalin (stă'lin) gained control of affairs, and Trotsky was forced out of the country.

The Soviet leaders organized various parts of the old Russian Empire under separate names, giving them the title of republics. The greater part of what had been Russian territory in Europe and Asia was named the Russian Socialist Federated Soviet Republic (R. S. F. S. R.). Other similar "socialist republics" were organized in the territory which had been known as Ukraine in southwestern Russia, in the territory occupied by the "White Russians," and in the territory south of the Caucasus Mountains. These and some other groups were united under a constitution adopted in 1924 as the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics — the U. S. S. R.

Soviet Russia had few friends in other countries. At first other governments would not give official recognition to the Soviet Union. But after a while, when the Soviet leaders began to talk less about upsetting other governments and were willing to buy goods that other countries produced, they gradually obtained recog-



DEMIGOD

The people of Soviet Russia have been taught to regard Nikolai Lenin (whose real name was Vladimir Ilyitch Ulianov) as an almost superhuman personage.



DIPLOMAT

Maxim Litvinov represented Soviet Russia in international conferences and was capable and popular as ambassador to the United States.

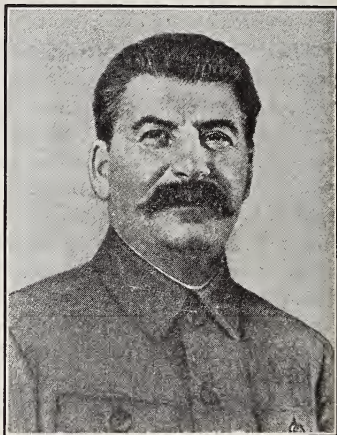
Stalin, who until 1941 held no office except that of Secretary-General of the Communist party. Then he decided to be prime minister himself.

If the Soviet leaders were sincere in advocating peace, were they justified in building up one of the largest armies in the world? If you had been President of the United States at some time between 1921 and 1933, what do you think your attitude toward Soviet Russia would have been?

386. Communism — Or What Have You? — We noticed (§ 321) that Communists are assumed to be opposed to all private property. The Communist party in Russia has not gone all the way to

nition again, and Russia was received into membership in the League of Nations. The United States was the last of the great powers to recognize Soviet Russia.

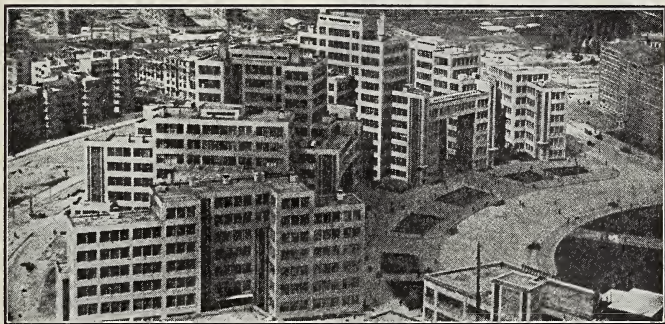
In 1936 a new constitution was adopted by the All-Union Congress. It provided for a legislative body of two houses. One of these is elected by popular vote, and the other represents the various allied republics which have formed the U. S. S. R. The constitution promises freedom of speech, the press, and religion, but in practice this freedom is enjoyed most fully by those who agree with the policies of the government. Offices bearing the title of president or prime minister existed, but those who held them were simply the agents of Joseph



SOVIET GENERALISSIMO

Josef Stalin, born Josef Vissarionovich Dzugashvili, probably held, at the time this picture was taken, more absolute authority than any other living person.

unlimited communism, and, indeed, prefers to use the word "Socialist" in connection with its various governments. Land and other natural resources, railroads, banks, factories, and other industrial activities, are entirely in the hands of the government. It may tell a man what trade or business he may engage in, how many rooms he may have for his family, and what he may buy at the stores which the government operates. Some of the time, however, private traders have been allowed to do business on a small scale.



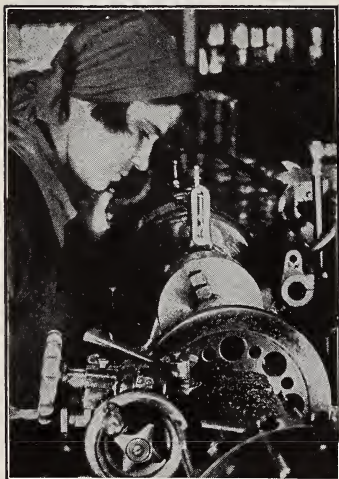
SOME FACTORY BUILDINGS IN SOVIET RUSSIA

The modernistic type of many of the newer buildings in Russian cities shows clearly in this picture. This is the so-called "House of Industry" in Kharkov. The newer parts of numerous Russian cities would show similar scenes.

Putting this program into effect in Russia has not been an easy undertaking. If families prominent in business and society under the Czar would not submit to the new order of things, they could be "liquidated" — in other words, killed off. But when it came to the farmers, the change was not so easy. Among the 100,000,000 Russians who lived on peasant farms there had been a hope that under the new arrangement they could own their little farms themselves. But Soviet leaders wanted to unite these small pieces of land into enormous "collective farms," which would be controlled by the government and operated with tractors and other machinery which most Russian farmers had never seen.

The Soviet leaders were also determined to make Russia as nearly as possible self-supporting industrially. They constructed

dams and power houses to run the factories which they put up, built railroads, constructed canals, and developed a market for Russian goods in other countries. How many of the features of their "five-year plans" were carried out, only the government could tell. In some years terrible droughts ruined the grain supply of the country, and perhaps millions of people actually starved to death.



A WOMAN WORKER IN RUSSIA

Soviet Russia thinks it has emancipated its women by letting them do almost every kind of work that men can do. This young woman is in a factory making tractors.

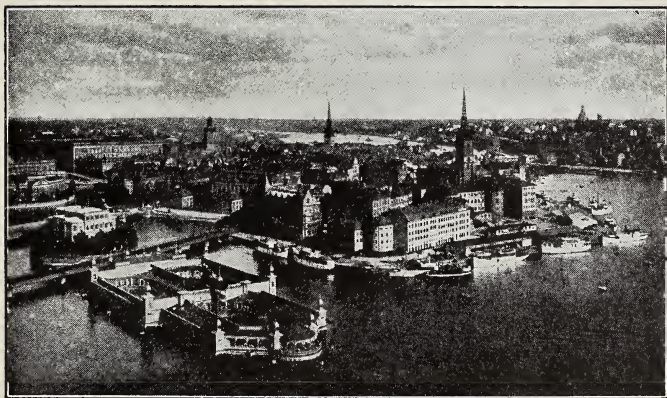
Are the Russian people satisfied with the Soviet government? They, especially the younger ones, were told that they were having a share in the building of a new society, and that they should be tremendously happy to be allowed to make sacrifices in behalf of it. Schools were established, children were compelled to attend them, radios were introduced, and books printed. What could be printed in books and newspapers or taught in the schools or listened to over the radio was, naturally, only what the government cared to have its citizens believe. Undoubtedly the masses of the

Russian people were somewhat better off than they were under the Czar. At least they had a government which claimed to be carried on in their interest, and they had no chance to compare their own situation with that of the workers of western Europe and the United States.

Soviet leaders tried at first to get rid of the influence of the old Russian Orthodox Church. They forbade the teaching of religion to any one under eighteen. Later, however, they considered it better strategy to try to get high church officials to coöperate with them.

Is all this communism? Is it democracy, as Russian politicians would like to have us believe? It is not our idea of democracy. If the Russian people are contented, who are we to object? But most of us will say, "Let them keep it for themselves. We don't want it."

If Russia had not been so seriously harmed by war do you think Lenin and Trotsky could have set up their program in that country? Could real communism be put into practice in a country which was based on the principle of democracy? If you were born in Russia and were living there today, how do you think you would feel toward the Soviet government and its policies?



SWEDEN'S CAPITAL CITY

Stockholm, built on its many islands, has been called the Venice of the North. It is a very attractive city either to visit or to live in.

387. Nations That Wished to Be Let Alone. — Several countries of Europe succeeded in going through the World War without taking part in it directly. Some of them suffered almost as much inconvenience through the interruption of the trade and normal life of their people as if they were actively lined up with one side or the other. But their cities and towns were spared the horrors of bombardments, and the lives of most of their young men were saved.

The Scandinavian countries, Norway, Sweden, and Denmark, were in this group of neutrals. A fourth country was added to

the group when Iceland decided that it wanted to be a separate state. The Icelanders continued to call the King of Denmark their king until May, 1941. But in June, 1944, they declared themselves a republic. In 1930 they celebrated the one-thousandth anniversary of the first meeting of their popular assembly — the oldest in the modern world. To such nations as these peace is very important, and so they have been sincere and active members of the League and the United Nations. They developed a system of society and industry which produced few very rich people, but set up a high standard of general comfort and enterprise.

Finland also seemed to have found its way into a class with the Scandinavian countries. Its people were hard-working, independent, and liberal. They established a republic with a president and a prime minister, and seemed to be doing well in looking out for their own affairs. They were popular in the United States because their government paid its debts to us regularly, though we were sorry to see them line up with Germany in the second World War.

The Dutch also escaped the worst of the effects of World War I. The Netherlands kept their constitutional monarchy, and Queen Wilhelmina was much loved by her people. Their vast island possessions in the East Indies have been profitable to them, and the Dutch sold to other countries vast amounts of rubber, tin, sugar, coffee, and tea. At home they have accomplished a tremendous engineering feat. That was to dry up about half the shallow patch of water which has been known as the Zuyder Zee. Thus they added 2,000,000 acres of fertile farm land to their already rich farming area.

Little Belgium regained a standard of comfort fairly early after the War, rebuilding much of what had been laid waste during the struggle. The Belgian port of Antwerp was one of the leading seaports in Europe. In international affairs Belgium, as might be expected, followed France very closely for some time. King Albert's tragic death (1934) while out on a hike by himself brought much grief to his people. He was succeeded by his son Leopold III, who decided that Belgium should follow a neutral policy rather than adhere closely to France. As others have done to their sorrow, he trusted the word of Adolf Hitler.

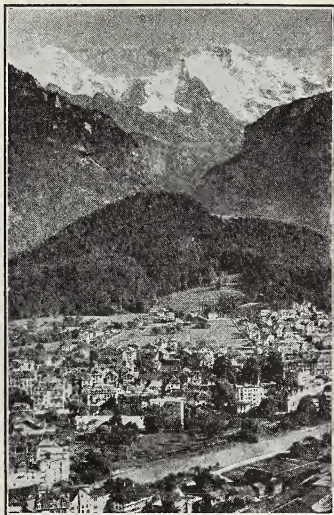
The other little European country that seemed to be particularly

anxious to be allowed to mind its own business was Switzerland. Yet Switzerland has had its problems. The twenty-two cantons into which it is divided have not always agreed. After a little civil war a better and stronger constitution for the Swiss federation was drawn up in 1848, which was in turn improved by changes made in 1874.

Switzerland offers a good example of a federal republic on a small scale. It comes the nearest to being a pure democracy of any national government in the world. Its affairs are handled by an executive council, one of whose members is often called president, though in reality he is simply the presiding officer of the council.

Three languages, German, French, and Italian, in that order as to numbers, are spoken among the Swiss people. All three of them may be seen on their paper money (page 563). The country's policy of neutrality has made it a refuge for politicians from other countries who found things a little too

warm at home. Many international conferences have been held in Swiss towns or cities, and Geneva seemed a natural choice as the location of the headquarters of the League of Nations.

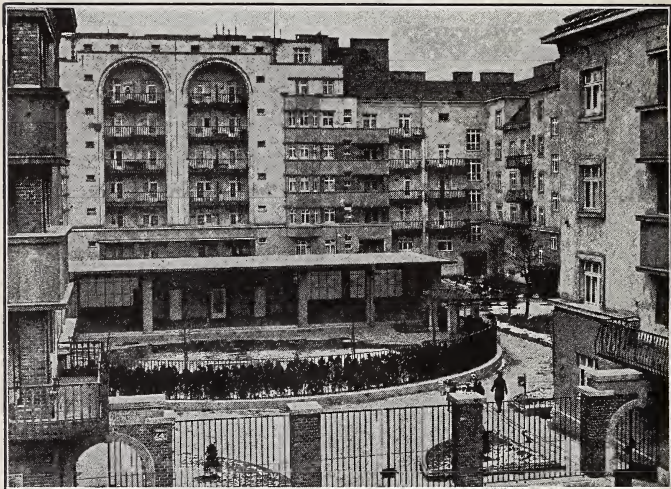


WHY TOURISTS GO TO SWITZERLAND

From this town of Interlaken, well-known to visitors, one gets a marvelous view of the Jungfrau. Switzerland's mountains have helped it more than once to keep out of war.

What part of our own country has in the past received many immigrants from the Scandinavian lands? When so many European countries have been unable to get along with one another because of their differences in race or speech, why do you suppose little Switzerland has succeeded in keeping at peace with other countries and within its own borders?

388. Central Europe and the Balkans, 1918-1938. — What was left of the old Dual Monarchy of Austria-Hungary after the World War was made into two separate countries. Austria was at first a republic. It accepted special help from the League of Nations, and was the first of the former central powers to become a member



HOUSING PROJECTS IN VIENNA

Vienna liked to boast that it was a city without slums. Two hundred small apartments are included in this structure.

of it. It was a sort of "buffer state" between Germany and Italy, and for a while it seemed to be for the interest of both those countries, especially Italy, to let it stay that way. In 1934, under the lead of Chancellor Dollfuss (döl'föös), a new constitution declared Austria to be a federal state, constituted on a corporative basis — that is, Fascist, somewhat after the fashion of Italy. Dollfuss was murdered by Nazis in 1934, but this crime did not change Austria's government immediately.

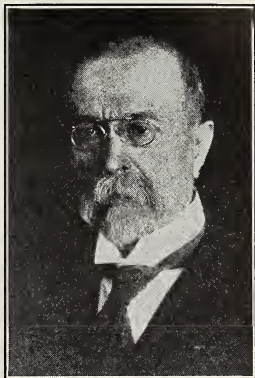
Hungary was much dissatisfied with the loss of its territory to Rumania and other neighbors. Attempts were made at a republic and at a communistic government, but finally a monarchy was

proclaimed. Nobody was chosen as king, and for many years Admiral Horthy acted as Regent. In World War II Hungary dared not oppose Hitler, but later tried to be a republic.

By their new boundaries both Austria and Hungary were handicapped in having no direct outlet to the sea. The Danube River was their chief communication by water with the outside world. Austria in particular was left with its big capital city of Vienna surrounded by a considerably smaller rural area than was needed for the support of such a big city. For several years Austria was ruled by a Socialist government, and during that time it undertook to wipe out the slums in Vienna. It built an immense number of apartments which it rented to Austrian citizens at a figure just large enough to pay expenses.

To the north of Austria there was created an irregularly shaped republic stretching about six hundred miles from east to west, and called, from the two chief national groups that composed it, Czechoslovakia. It had varied natural resources, and ranked high in the products of its farms and factories. Its people, especially in the western division known as Bohemia, were progressive and intelligent. The country liked its first president, Thomas G. Masaryk (mä'säräk), so well that it kept him in office until he resigned in 1935. He was followed by Eduard Beneš (běněsh'), who had been its foreign secretary for several years, and was prominent in the League of Nations.

The biggest of all the countries which World War I brought into existence was Poland. It was easy enough to locate Poland on a map, but there were few mountains, rivers, or other geographical features to serve as natural boundaries. Poland called itself a republic, and like most of the other republics of Europe had a prime minister. For several years, however, Marshal Pilsudski, until his death in 1935, was almost a dictator. Poland at first



THOMAS G. MASARYK

He helped to found a republic whose misfortunes were in no way his fault.

was allied with France in the hope of promoting the safety of both of them against Germany. Later Poland made a useless ten-year "nonaggression" agreement with Germany.

Rumania gained considerable territory from Hungary in the peace settlements of 1919, and also obtained the province of Bessarabia, which had formerly been under Russian rule. Rumania is noted for its grain and other farm products, and in late years has risen in importance because of its production of oil and gas. Bucharest, its capital city, is the largest in southeastern Europe. King Carol, who had been noted for scandals in his private life, gave up the throne in 1940 in favor of his son Michael, and left the country. During World War II, Rumania was under the control of the Axis powers, but signed an armistice with the United Nations in 1944. Later it became a tool of Russia.

Yugoslavia, which included the former Serbia and Montenegro, also gained territory in the break-up of Austria-Hungary. Within its borders were people of different races who did not like one another any too well. For one period its King Alexander ruled much like an autocrat, and when he did permit a change in government, it was under a constitution announced by himself. He was assassinated while on a visit to France in the fall of 1934. His son, a young boy, Peter II, became king, but a family relative, Prince Paul, was made regent.

South of Yugoslavia and Rumania were the two states of Albania and Bulgaria. Albania in particular was somewhat backward and different from other Balkan states in that more than half of its people were Mohammedans. Bulgaria, which had been lined up with the other Central Powers in World War I, and, like them, lost territory as a result, was dissatisfied with the peace settlement, but there was not much it could do about it. Its King Boris, whose young son Simeon II succeeded him at his death in August, 1943, married a girl from the royal family of Italy. Italy, by the way, felt much interested in what went on among the Balkan countries, and though for a while not much was said about the matter, was anxious that Russia should not gain any considerable influence in that neighborhood.

Greece went through several changes after the first World War. Part of the time it has had a king, either Constantine, who held

that office during the War, or his son, George II. In 1923 Greece became a republic, but in 1935 recalled George to be king again. For several years Venizelos, who did much to keep Greece on the side of the Allies during World War I, was prominent in Greek politics. In 1936 Prime Minister Metaxas made himself virtually the dictator of the country, and continued to rule until his death in 1941. Under Turkey's enlightened government pleasant relations with Greece were restored.

Why do you suppose in so many cases countries which were freed from tyrannical rulers conducted themselves about the same as their former masters had done? Why do you suppose some countries were uncertain whether to set up republics or monarchies as their form of government? Could you have done any better than the peacemakers did at Paris in remaking the map of central Europe in 1919?

389. The United States Looks On. — Though the United States Senate did not permit the country to join the League of Nations or participate in the World Court, our people paid much attention to what was going on in Europe during the post-War period. When the League of Nations was trying to get some of the European countries on their feet, and when under the German republic movements for reviving German business and trade were begun, citizens of the United States lent much of the needed money.

The administration of President Franklin D. Roosevelt (1933-1945), who was elected by a large majority after the depression which began in 1929 had turned people against the Republican party, was a time of much new law-making. Congress gave to the President powers in connection with the country's money system, banks, agriculture, and industry which a President had never before received in time of peace. It also passed a Social Security Act which set up an extensive system of social insurance, somewhat after the fashion that Germany and Great Britain had done years earlier. Because our government was willing to take all the gold that was offered to it, the United States government came to possess four-fifths of all the gold coin or bullion in the world.

Since some people in the United States concluded that nothing worth while had been accomplished by World War I, proposals became popular which were meant to keep the United States out of any future war. One law prohibited the lending of money to

any countries which were not making payments on their former war debts. Another, passed in 1937, forbade the sale of munitions and other war supplies to any country engaged in war, or the lending of money to them. The net result of such policies,



HITLER AND ONE OF HIS GENERALS

The actual leader of the German army in its invasion of Germany's western neighbors, Walther von Brauchitch, is shown here with his Fuehrer (Hitler at the right).

however, was unfortunate, for they suggested that the United States stood for peace at any price and would do nothing to help peaceful nations that were attacked by belligerent governments.

President Roosevelt had no love for European dictators, and did not hesitate to say so. Many felt that the United States ought to be willing to assist, at least by any means short of war, nations that were trying to protect themselves against attack. This, they believed, was not sentimentalism but plain common sense that would protect our interests as well as those of other peaceful people. On the other hand,

some, frequently called "isolationists," were so determined that the United States should take no part in problems affecting other continents that they were willing to ignore all questions of right or wrong in such matters, or any possibility that they might concern this country too.

Have the people of the United States the right to think that they are more fortunately situated than the people of most other countries? Could a country be so anxious to keep out of war as to fail to give proper attention to its own interests?

390. Hitler Strikes. — Adolf Hitler, before he came into power in Germany, had written a book which he called "Mein Kampf" (My Struggle). In it he explained at considerable length his ideas

about the way things might be done. The book had been looked upon as more or less the ravings of a mind not entirely balanced, but Hitler in power undertook to put into practice many of the ideas which he had set forth in his book.

Hitler planned to make Germany so strong that no other nation alone would dare to resist him, though, if Germany and Italy were as efficient as their rulers wanted us to believe, they could have gained everything they really needed by peaceful competition. It was asserted that such superior people as the Germans were entitled to all the "Lebensraum" (living room) they wanted, and no Nazi cared about anybody else's rights. In his program of expansion Hitler's policy at first was to pick on only one nation at a time, expecting that the rest would keep quiet. Sometimes he could stir up dissatisfaction within a country and use that dissatisfaction as an excuse for action on his part. People who made excuses for Hitler and Mussolini laid the trouble in the world to a quarrel between the "haves," represented by Great Britain and France, and the "have-nots," represented by Germany and Italy.

Up to the beginning of 1938 Hitler had done nothing that, if it had not been for the Versailles Treaty, he would not have had a perfect right to do. Neville Chamberlain's government in England had hoped that a policy of "appeasement," making some concessions to Hitler and Mussolini, might induce them to refrain from anything seriously harmful to the welfare of Europe as a whole. Chamberlain did not realize at first that any concession only made Hitler ready to make bigger demands and more certain that nobody would dare to stand in his way.

Hitler's first stroke was at Austria. Since the people of Austria had many ties with the Germans by race and otherwise, it was not hard to argue that the so-called Anschluss, or union of Austria with Germany, was at least justifiable. Prime Minister Schuschnigg was willing to allow a popular vote as to whether Austria would join Germany, but this did not suit Hitler. In March, 1938, Schuschnigg was made a prisoner, German troops marched into Austria, and Hitler rode into Vienna triumphant.

Extending German territory eastward by this stroke made easier Hitler's next aggression. Germans living in that part of Czechoslovakia known as the Sudeten land suddenly discovered that they

were being ill-treated, and demanded more privileges of self-government. Hitler pretended that he had to protect these "persecuted" Germans and got ready to invade Czechoslovakia. This situation worried Great Britain and France, but they could



WELCOME TO CZECHOSLOVAKIA

Adolf Hitler, after his bloodless conquest of his smaller neighbor, crosses into Czechoslovakia at Wildenau. How many of the cheers and salutes do you suppose were sincere?

not do much to help Czechoslovakia, for Poland on one side and Hungary on the other were also demanding territory which they said should have been theirs all the time. At a conference in Munich on September 29, 1938, Chamberlain of Great Britain, Daladier of France, Hitler, and Mussolini agreed upon a plan which gave Hitler everything that he asked for. Czechoslovakia lost nearly one-third of her territory and population, and was left in such a position that she could not defend herself against any strong invader. President Beneš had to leave the country. Hitler said that this was his last territorial demand in Europe, and some people tried to believe him.

It was only six months before this pledge was broken (March,

1939). Repeating the old stories of disorder and misrule in Czechoslovakia, Hitler sent his soldiers into Prague, the capital city of the country, seized the gold in its treasury, gave the province of Ruthenia in the eastern end of the country to Hungary, and put



BLITZKRIEG

What can be done by modern war-makers appears in this picture of what was left of part of Warsaw after the German conquest. German tactics were based on a sudden violent attack with tanks and planes, if possible taking their foes by surprise.

all the rest of what had been Czechoslovakia under his control. Hitler also seized the port of Memel in Lithuania, which he claimed should have been included in East Prussia.

Just a few weeks after Hitler entered Prague, Mussolini seized Albania (April, 1939). Nobody did anything about it. The "Rome-Berlin Axis" was apparently going to make itself secure in Europe.

These moves by the dictators of central Europe alarmed everybody. President Roosevelt sent an appeal to Hitler proposing that he make "non-aggression" treaties with all the neighboring powers that might feel endangered, and thus do something to

reduce the fear that war was near. Hitler's reply, in a violent speech, was virtually to tell Roosevelt to mind his own business and to denounce the treaties which he already had made with Poland and with Great Britain. "Appeasement" was now out of the question, and Chamberlain proceeded to try to make arrangements with other countries for united action to resist any further aggressions on the part of Germany.

The British and French governments have often been blamed for letting Hitler have his way in September, 1938. What do you think you would have done if you had been in their places? Why could not the League of Nations do something about Austria and Czechoslovakia, which had given no cause for the violation of their independence?

391. War Comes Again. — The Polish Corridor and Danzig furnished the final excuse for the outbreak of another war in Europe, which we now most often call World War II. Since it was practically certain that Hitler was only biding his time before making demands on Poland, Prime Minister Chamberlain of Great Britain promised to help Poland, Rumania, and Greece, if they were attacked by anybody, and France supported the British government. The two nations also tried to get Russia to join them in an agreement to resist Hitler's progress, but without success.

Suddenly (August 23, 1939) it was announced that Russia had signed a ten-year non-aggression agreement with Germany. Each of the two powers said it would not attack the other and would not join any combination directed at the other. The two countries also agreed to exchange products as needed. The agreement was good evidence that Hitler's supposed hostility toward communism was insincere and that Stalin would do anything that he thought would advance the interests of Russia.

Relieved of the danger of having to defend an eastern front, Hitler made stronger demands on Poland, and when Poland did not immediately yield, sent his troops into the country (September 1, 1939). On September 3 England and France announced that they were at war with Germany. They declared they were fighting for the independence and liberties of the free people of Europe, and meant to keep on fighting until the danger of constant German aggression on other peoples was ended.

The Nazis put into effect the "Blitzkrieg," or lightning war, which they had talked about. The Polish defense was weaker than had been expected, and the British and French could do nothing right away to help the Poles. The disaster to Poland was complete when the Russians sent troops in great numbers which occupied the eastern part of the country. At the end of September about two-fifths of its territory was under Russian occupation, and the rest, the part toward Germany, was under Nazi control.

The next offensive move was made by Russia. Stalin's government demanded that Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania give it the right to occupy naval and air bases on the Baltic coast. Neither separately nor together did they dare to resist, and they yielded. When he tried the same game on Finland, however, the Finns refused to submit. For three months they held out most bravely. But the Finns could get no effective help from outside except through Norway and Sweden, which would not risk their own neutrality. Finally Finland had to make peace (March, 1940) on terms which gave the Russians all that they had asked in the beginning and a little more.

The French expected their Maginot Line, close to their northeastern boundary, to protect them, and the Germans had their Westwall or Siegfried line. The British activities, just as at the beginning of World War I, at first took the form of a blockade of German ports and an effort to tie up German commercial vessels so that they would be of no use. The Germans replied with a submarine campaign not only against British ships, but against any neutral vessels that dared to carry on trade with Great Britain.

The Netherlands, Belgium, Switzerland, and the Scandinavian countries feared the worst, but they hoped that keeping their neutrality through one world war might show them how to do it again. Mussolini refrained from taking Italy into the war at first; Hitler said he didn't need Mussolini's help just then. Because of Russia's change of tactics, Japan might feel less danger from that source, but her hands were still pretty full in China.

Turkey's attitude was of great importance. It commanded the Dardanelles, that famous entrance into the Black Sea, which might mean much to one side or the other. Turkey decided to make a treaty of alliance with Great Britain and France, in ac-

cordance with which they agreed to help one another if any of them were drawn into war in the Mediterranean. It was understood, however, that Turkey did not have to take any action which would get her into war with Russia.

And what would the United States do? President Roosevelt had tried to get Congress to change the neutrality laws (p. 774) so as to permit sales of war supplies to anybody who could come and get the goods and pay for them. Some Senators were so sure there was going to be no war that the proposition did not go through at first; but after war did break out Congress in special session did what the President proposed. It repealed that part of its neutrality acts which forbade the sale of war supplies, but insisted on a "cash and carry" policy, and also required American vessels to keep out of any regions where war was going on. So this country abandoned its long-time policy of "freedom of the seas" in the hope that by so doing it could stay out of actual fighting. Everybody knew that the change in the neutrality law would benefit Great Britain and France; but though the people as a whole hoped to keep out of war, the great majority of them felt a deep sympathy for Great Britain and France as against Hitler and the Russians.

Why do you think Turkey was now on the side of Great Britain and France though during World War I she had been lined up with Germany? Was there any inconsistency in the attitude of the United States in not wishing to take part in the war directly, though the sympathies of its people in general were strongly on one side?

392. Nazi Conquests. — For several months after the downfall of Poland nothing of great importance happened between the Allies and Germany. Some critics raised the question if this was not a "phony" war. The demand for action became strong enough to cause the British government to place on Winston Churchill great responsibility for conducting the war and finally to make him prime minister in Chamberlain's place. In France Daladier's cabinet had to give way to one headed by Paul Reynaud.

Without warning to anybody else, early in April, 1940, Hitler sent troops into Denmark and occupied that little country, which was too weak to try to resist, and landed soldiers at several ports

in Norway. A group in that country, headed by a Major Quisling, whose name came to be used as a synonym for *traitor*, helped the Germans. The British and French sent ships and troops to aid the Norwegians, but were unable to prevent the Germans from getting control of the entire country.

About a month after the invasion of Norway, Hitler's troops smashed against Holland and Belgium and through the little



GERMAN MECHANIZED TROOPS

country of Luxembourg into France (May 10). The Dutch tried to resist, but after a few days felt obliged to yield. Their queen and her leading ministers took refuge in England. British and French troops rushed to help the Belgians. The Germans were particularly strong in the air. They had made the defense of the Dutch cities much more difficult by dropping soldiers from parachutes. Their bombing planes were more numerous than those of all their opponents put together. On the ground, they were well supplied with tanks and had enough of their troops provided with motor equipment so that they could move faster than any

equal number of soldiers had traveled in any other war in history.

Amazement and anger swept over the free nations in both hemispheres at this new violation of neutral rights. Especially in the United States a sudden realization of the possible danger to this country if Hitler succeeded in his plans in Europe produced a tremendous change in public feeling. Vigorous measures for defense were asked by the President and supported by Congress with little hesitation, but of course no nation could do in a few weeks what it had failed to do in several years.

Blunders by French commanders helped the fast-moving German troops to break through the Allied defense and reach the coast of the English Channel. This movement separated a large force of British, French, and Belgians in Belgium from the rest of the Allied troops. Then King Leopold of Belgium, for reasons which some did not understand, surrendered the entire Belgian army to the Germans. Fighting a historic rear-guard action, a good proportion of the trapped British army reached the Channel at Dunkirk and was ferried in all kinds of boats to safety in England; but the battle of Flanders was a complete German victory.

Next Hitler turned on France. Mussolini, thinking that his chance had arrived, declared that Italy was at war with both France and Great Britain. The French defense went to pieces, and a majority of the French leaders decided to quit. A new cabinet headed by Marshal Pétain took office and asked Hitler and Mussolini for terms on which fighting might stop. Under these terms France was divided into "occupied" and "unoccupied" France. In the "occupied" part Germans were in full control. In the "unoccupied" portion Pétain's government, with headquarters at Vichy, was allowed to think it had some authority, but it did not dare to act contrary to Hitler's wishes. It even set up a sort of dictatorship and ordered the making of a new constitution along Fascist lines. After a while Pierre Laval assumed a position of importance in the government. He claimed to believe in "collaboration" with Hitler, but that meant nothing but doing what Hitler ordered. Some Frenchmen, however, calling themselves "free French" and led by General Charles De Gaulle, refused to accept Pétain's government and cooperated with the British.

When the French authorities refused to accept any of the proposals that the British made to them in regard to the French fleet, the British, fearing that those ships would be used against them, sank or badly damaged some of the largest French vessels in a battle off the coast of Algeria. Some other French vessels were brought under British control without fighting.

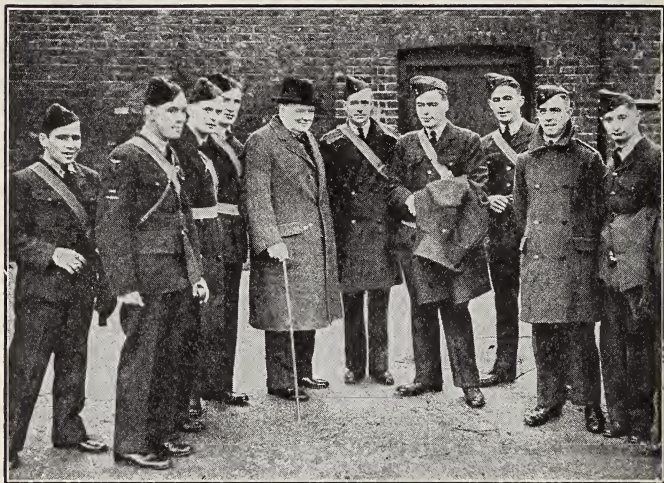
Meantime Stalin was taking advantage of Hitler's occupation in Western Europe. After bringing the three small Baltic states, Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania, under full control, Stalin's government demanded that Rumania turn over to Russia the province of Bessarabia which she had gained at the end of the World War, and some other territory which had never belonged to Russia. King Carol could not fight Russia alone, Britain could not come to help him, and he had to yield to the Russians. Hitler was so occupied with his plans for crushing Great Britain that for the time being he had to pretend that the steps Russia had taken were acceptable to him; but after a few months German troops came in, Carol went into exile, and Rumania became another subject nation.

How do you suppose the Germans could build up such mighty land and air forces without other countries knowing about it? Or did they know and still do nothing? What is your explanation of Hitler's surprising series of victories?

393. The Defense of Britain. — With France half surrendered to Hitler and the rest of that country left without means to fight, the whole burden of resisting Hitler's aggressions in western Europe rested on Britain. Her factories worked day and night, and her people, though under a tremendous strain, bore up wonderfully. Beginning with September, vicious attacks by air upon London and other important seaport or factory towns and cities became frequent. Britain retaliated with her Royal Air Force (RAF) and bombed seaport cities in occupied France and Belgium, from which air raids and submarines might go out and attack Britain. The RAF also attacked numerous railroad and manufacturing towns in Germany, and even reached Berlin itself.

Realizing how hard it would be to conquer the British people if they could keep themselves alive under these attacks, the Nazi leaders planned a campaign on the sea to interrupt the flow of

Britain's supplies of food, planes, tanks, and other munitions from the United States. Submarines and airplanes worked together in this undertaking. Since Eire tried to be neutral, the British could not use Irish ports as bases of operations. They were,



BRITISH WAR PRIME MINISTER WITH UNEXPECTED VISITORS

Winston Churchill, while on his way to a Cabinet meeting at No. 10 Downing Street, met some Australian airmen who were in London for the first time.

therefore, under a worse handicap in resisting German attacks by sea than during the first World War. The "Battle of the Atlantic," it was often called, was looked upon by many as the phase of the war which would finally decide the winner.

The Germans had few big ships to use in their activities on the sea, and depended chiefly on submarines and a few vessels used to raid commerce. One of these, the *Graf Spee*, was sunk off the coast of Uruguay by its own crew after a fight with British vessels. In May, 1941, the *Bismarck*, Germany's biggest warship, sank by a lucky shot Britain's biggest warship, the *Hood*, in the strait between Greenland and Iceland. A few days later British ships and planes avenged the loss by sinking the *Bismarck*.

What advantages and disadvantages to either side resulted from the German occupation of Nazi France?

394. Africa, the Balkan Countries, and Asia. — Mussolini's participation in the war turned out to be rather painful to him. His African colonies were now open to attack, as they had not been while he had pretended to be neutral. Troops came from Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa to fight under the British flag in North Africa and Ethiopia. Haile Selassie, whom the Italians had once driven out of his old capital in Ethiopia, came back and helped to stir up the natives against the Italians. Steadily the Italian forces were beaten in battle and in separate groups compelled to surrender until by May, 1941, Haile Selassie was back in Addis Ababa. It was not long before the British controlled all the rest of Italy's colonies in East Africa.

Mussolini had the notion that all he had to do to take Greece was to go after it. So in the fall of 1940, Italian troops in Albania attacked the Greeks. Instead of retiring or surrendering, the Greeks turned upon the Italians and drove them back into Albania. Then in March, 1941, part of the Italian fleet was sunk or defeated by the British in a fight in the eastern Mediterranean. Italian troops, which had advanced along the northern coast of Africa, hoping to make headway into Egypt or even threaten the Suez Canal, were captured or beaten back by British and Australians under General Wavell. To rescue his ally from utter collapse, Hitler sent German forces into Italy, which took control of almost every activity of importance in the country. In the spring of 1941 German soldiers recaptured much of the region on the North African coast which the British had taken from the Italians. Mussolini before long found himself and his country more nearly in the position of conquered people than allies of Hitler.

Hitler had still been playing the game of trying to get nations, one at a time, to accept his "protection." After much urging, Bulgaria did so. The Regent of Yugoslavia, Prince Paul, also finally yielded, but in less than a week a revolution broke out against the Nazis. Then the Nazis pounded their way into Yugoslavia and Greece (1941). British forces which had tried to help the Greeks retreated with the Greeks to the island of Crete, but could not hold that island either. Prime Minister Metaxas of

Greece had died while the Greeks were still winning over the Italians, and his place was hard to fill.

Neither Bulgaria nor Yugoslavia really wanted to join up with Hitler, and certainly Turkey and Greece did not. Do you think there would have been a different result to these campaigns if these countries had been united and had been willing to join in defense against the German aggressions? Why do you suppose the Italian campaigns were so nearly a complete failure until the Germans took over the direction of affairs?

Germany and Italy drew Japan into one agreement with them under the pretense of restraining Communism, and into another that

was intended as a threat to the United States if that country should be tempted to go into the war on the side of the British. The Japanese minister Matsuoka took a trip to Europe, visiting Moscow, Berlin, and Rome, and on the way back put over a treaty with Soviet Russia (March, 1941) in which each country appeared to make concessions to the other in regard to matters in eastern Asia which had seemed possible sources of disagreement.

In the Near East events were a little pleasanter. German agents in Iraq



Talburt in World-Telegram

"PEACE, IT'S WONDERFUL."

stirred up a rebellion which at first forced the regent of the country to flee (May, 1941), but British forces suppressed the rebellion and restored the former government. The French forces in Syria took orders from the Vichy government in France and allowed German airmen to use bases of operation in Syria. The British now decided to prevent Syria from falling to the Germans. Troops entered Syria from several directions, and after a few weeks of resistance the Vichy forces surrendered (July, 1941).

395. The New World and the War. — Some people liked to believe that this was another “imperialistic war” and that the two great oceans on the east and west of the American continents would keep the conflict away from them. Many had not known that the offices of German and Italian airlines in South America, as well as even American business headquarters, were used as centers of propaganda in behalf of European governments. We have already referred (§§ 338, 341) to a special conference at Havana in 1940 that tried to counteract some of the influences that were doing harm.

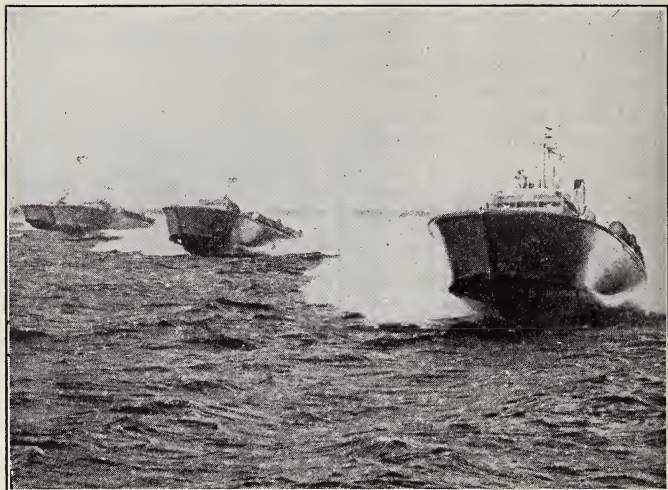
As Britain's needs became more serious, the desire in the United States to help them increased. Both candidates for the presidency in 1940, Roosevelt and Willkie, favored giving all possible help to Britain, with the usual qualification, “short of war.” In September, 1940, Roosevelt announced the trade of fifty destroyers to Great Britain in exchange for eight locations, from Newfoundland on the north to British Guiana on the south, which might be used as naval or air bases for national defense. Later the United States received from the Danish minister in Washington permission to establish a naval and air base in Greenland, and from the government of Iceland an invitation to protect that country, which is an important station on the route to England and Russia.

For the first time in our history a Selective Service Act was passed by Congress while the nation was technically at peace. This required all men from 21 to 35 to register for possible service. After the United States was actually in the war, the age limits were made 18 to 64, though few over 38 were taken into service.



UNITED STATES NAVAL AND AIR BASES

Early in 1941 Roosevelt recommended the passage of the Lend-Lease Act. By it Congress authorized the President to lend, sell, or otherwise make available for the use of the British or any other people struggling against aggressors almost any kind of material aid. Congress appropriated \$7,000,000,000 to pay the first cost of the proposed program, which would help to make the United States more secure, and to assist other countries. China, Russia,



SUBMARINE HUNTERS

Official U. S. Navy Photo

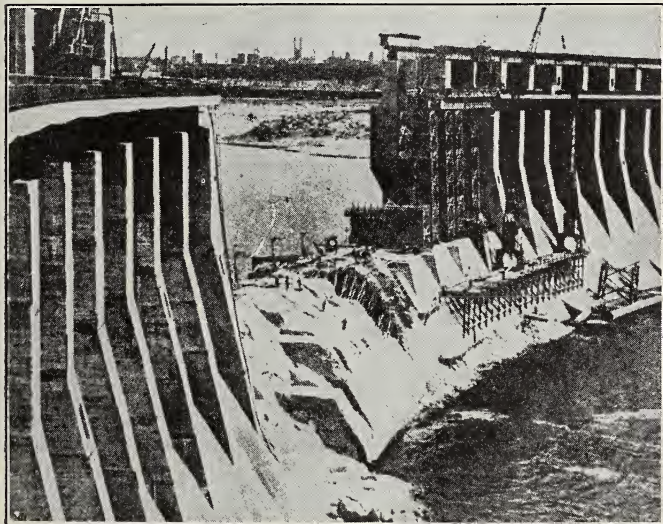
The motor torpedo boats are the fastest things afloat.

Turkey, and Latin-American nations, as well as Britain and the British dominions, received assistance under this Lend-Lease Act. A number of these countries aided the United States in return by furnishing materials the American forces needed. Congress renewed the act so as to keep it in effect while the war lasted.

Many things strongly suggested that, if Britain failed, the New World would be next in line for Nazi conquest. The sinking of merchant vessels by German submarines or surface raiders in South Atlantic waters made it clear that the war would not stay

on the other side of the Atlantic. Relations between the United States and the Axis powers steadily became more strained.

What do you understand by the emphasis which many people in the United States have been placing on a two-ocean navy? Why might it be dangerous for the United States to have all of its naval forces in either ocean? For what reasons of trade and business was the United States concerned about what might happen in Asia and the East Indies?



"SCORCHED EARTH"

Acme Photo

In their retreat the Russians destroyed their greatest power plant, the Dnieprostroi Dam. Here the Germans are repairing it in midwinter. They could not keep it long, however

396. Germany *vs.* Russia. — To the amazement of most of the world, Hitler in the early morning of Sunday, June 22, 1941, started a new blitzkrieg, this time against his supposed ally, Soviet Russia. Soon there was a moving battle line running from north to south for about 1700 miles in Russian territory with more than 2,000,000 soldiers engaged on the two sides. Mussolini said "Me too" once more and announced that he also was at war with Russia.

Apparently Hitler had decided that he could not make a conquest of Britain at this time, and was not getting as much as he wanted out of his "non-aggression" treaty with Russia. He had hoped for great supplies of Russian wheat and oil and the products of Russian factories, but seemingly had concluded that Stalin was looking out for Russia more than he was for Hitler. He ex-



WHERE HITLER'S FORCES HAD PENETRATED BY THE BEGINNING OF 1942

pected to occupy Moscow and perhaps get to the Volga River by winter.

But what Napoleon had not succeeded in doing, Hitler also failed to accomplish in this first year of invasion. He did not even get Moscow or Leningrad; and though he moved his armies several hundred miles into Russian territory, the Russians laid waste the country ahead of him and even destroyed some of their treasured factories and dams to prevent Hitler's getting any benefit from their operation.

This invasion of Russia and the heroic defense of the country by the Russian troops changed the whole character of the war. Neither Great Britain nor the United States had any liking for

communism, but Hitler was a greater danger than communism, and whoever would fight Hitler was an ally of the democracies. Two million or more German soldiers on Russian soil could not be used anywhere else, and Hitler's foes were getting stronger every day as the year 1942 went on. Soon the British RAF (Royal Air Force) began fierce bombing attacks upon German factory cities and ports and upon places in occupied France and Holland which the Germans were using for their own benefit.

In the summer and early fall of 1942 the German invaders swept on through the region north of the Black Sea and into the Caucasus



STALINGRAD BEFORE THE ATTACK

Acme Photo

Mountains, which they hoped to occupy as a source of a vital supply of oil. In this effort the Germans got as far as Stalingrad on the Volga, but there the Russians made a desperate stand. Though the city was virtually destroyed, the Germans did not succeed in taking it. In 1943 the Russians regained much of the territory which the Germans had occupied, and by 1944 they had forced the Germans back into Poland. By this time the Germans had to keep troops in Italy and in the Balkans which they might have used in Russia.

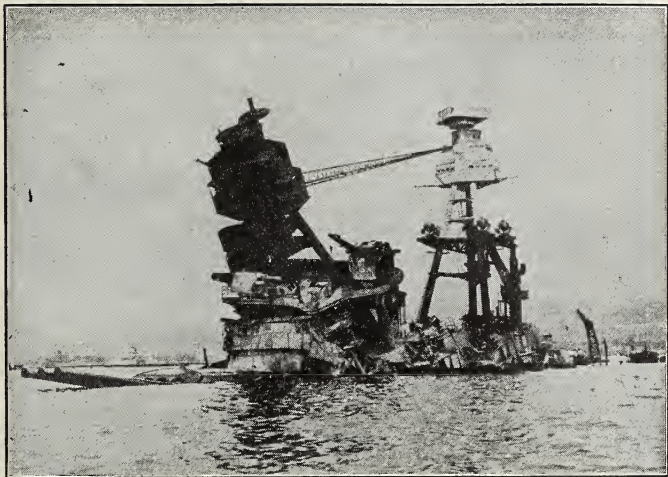
The Russians sometimes felt that they were putting up almost all the effective resistance to Hitler and the Nazis. Prime Minister Stalin more than once spoke about the "second front" which he hoped might be started in the western part of Europe to force the Germans to fight on two fronts. But the British and Americans felt that an invasion of western Europe across the English Channel would be the most costly of all ways of getting into Europe, if it were undertaken too soon. The southern side of Europe seemed to offer more chance of breaking into the Continent. Even there, some argument arose as to whether the attacks should be through the Balkans or through Italy.

397. Japan Goes Out against the West. — When the year 1942 arrived the second World War had become definitely global, as we frequently call it today. We have already noticed (§§ 331, 332) how Japanese military leaders were steadily pushing their country into a position of hostility, first toward their neighbor China, and then toward any other countries that might have interests in the Far East. They would not have dared by themselves to take on China, Great Britain, and the United States all at once, but Hitler's activities encouraged them to think that now was their opportunity.

Japanese leaders had talked a good deal about setting up what they had called a "Greater East Asia Co-prosperity Sphere." They could make that sound good to native people in eastern Asia who were willing to be fooled into thinking that all Europeans and Americans were dangerous; but anybody else could easily see that this program meant making Japan the master of all eastern Asia. The ideas of the Japanese leaders about government were very much like those of Germany and Italy, though each of those three powers was most concerned about getting what it could for itself and no one of the three fully trusted either of the others.

For several reasons the United States had worried over Japanese aggressions in China. As far back as 1937 an American naval vessel, the *Panay*, was bombed in a river in China. Such incidents, especially when the United States was willing to accept an apology for an incident that had no sufficient explanation, encouraged the Japanese to think that the United States would stand for almost anything. Indeed, to give Japan no excuse for hostile actions, the

United States did not break off trade relations with that country and continued to sell it oil and scrap iron months after many people thought such business should be stopped. After months of fruitless discussion, Japan sent two envoys to Washington to hold the attention of the American authorities while they finished their



Official U. S. Navy Photo

THE BATTLESHIP ARIZONA AT PEARL HARBOR

plans for a treacherous attack upon the United States and Great Britain.

Then came Pearl Harbor (December 7, 1941). On that Sunday morning, while no sufficient watch was being kept against possible enemies, a fleet of airplanes attacked the ships, planes, and other defenses in this harbor in Hawaii which was the headquarters of the Pacific fleet of the United States. The day after this "day of infamy," as President Roosevelt called it, Congress at his recommendation declared war on Japan. Before the week was over, Hitler and Mussolini declared themselves to be at war with the United States.

Perhaps never was the sentiment of the nation more nearly unanimous. Even those people who had boasted of their "isolationism"

were now "all out" for victory over the treacherous Japanese and their Axis associates in Europe. Now preparations for defense were changed into preparedness for war. Factories which had made automobiles or other instruments for peace were turned over to the making of tanks or some other needed form of munitions. Thousands of troops with tanks, airplanes, and other needed equip-



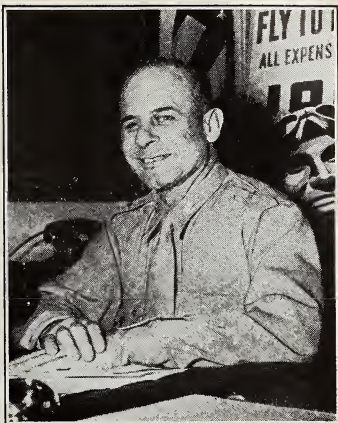
THE HARBOR AT SINGAPORE

ment were sent nearer to fighting fronts. Some were landed in North Ireland and many others in Australia.

But why Australia? Because Japanese plans carefully worked out for many years were put into operation with such speed and with such an abundance of men and planes that in a few weeks the Japanese occupied a vast area. They overran Thailand, moved down the Malay Peninsula, and took Singapore. They landed soldiers in the Philippines, and in spite of brave resistance on our part succeeded in getting possession of the islands. They seized most of the Dutch possessions in the East Indies and some island territories which had been under the British flag. Then they moved against Burma and blocked the Burma Road

over which supplies had gone to China; and so threatened China from the south and India from the east.

There was no doubt that the Japanese wanted Australia. But would they try to take it before going as far as they could in China and toward India? General Douglas MacArthur, whose leadership in defending the Philippines had made him a national hero, made a daring escape in obedience to orders, and was put in command of the forces of the United Nations in and around Australia. During 1942 several parts of the Pacific area witnessed naval and air combats as well as land fighting between the forces of the United States and Japan.



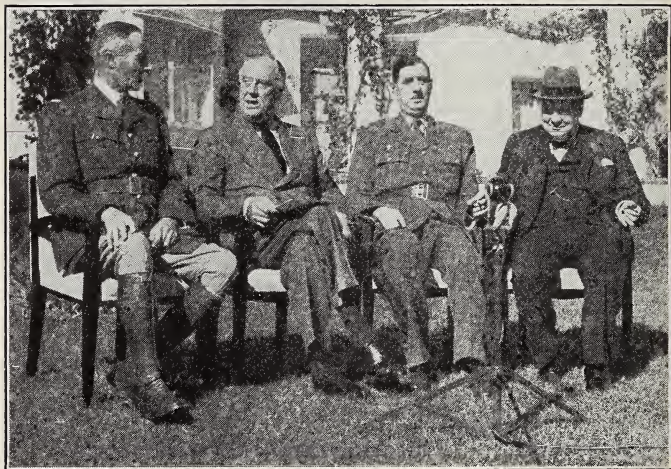
GENERAL DOOLITTLE

398. The United Nations Plan and Fight Together. — In August, 1941, while the United States was still officially neutral, President Roosevelt and Prime Minister Churchill of Britain met on a vessel in the Atlantic Ocean and drew up a document commonly known as the Atlantic Charter, to set forth their ideas about a world such as we should like to see. The chief points of the Charter were these :

1. Their countries will seek no selfish gain.
2. They wish no territorial changes except in accordance with the will of the people concerned.
3. All people should have the right to choose the form of government under which they will live.
4. All nations should have equal access to trade and to the raw materials needed for industry.
5. Nations should work together to improve labor, industry, and social security.
6. A peace should be established which will assure all men that they may live in freedom from fear and want.
7. All men should be free to travel the seas and oceans.
8. All nations must some time give up the use of force in international affairs.

On January 1, 1942, representatives of 26 nations announced that they accepted the Atlantic Charter and would make no separate peace with the enemies of the United Nations. A little later several other governments gave their approval.

The airplane made it possible for the leaders of the United Nations to confer with one another more than allies had ever done before in time of war. Churchill conferred with Roosevelt in



WAR LEADERS OF THREE NATIONS AT CASABLANCA
Giraud, Roosevelt, De Gaulle, Churchill.

Washington at least four times. Roosevelt and Churchill also met in Casablanca in Morocco in January, 1943. Other conferences between representatives of Britain, United States, and Canada, and sometimes Russia, occurred at Quebec and Moscow. At Moscow, Secretary of State Hull of the United States, Anthony Eden of Britain, and Maxim Litvinof of Russia, took part. In May, 1943, the Soviet government announced that it would no longer promote the agency known as the Communist Internationale, which had been formed years before to spread communism in other countries. Later in 1943 Chiang Kai-shek and Madame Chiang met with Roosevelt and Churchill at Cairo, and from there Roose-

velt and Churchill flew to Teheran to confer with Stalin of Russia.

For some months in 1942 British troops on one side and German and Italian on the other campaigned back and forth along the coast of northern Africa. Late in October the British under General Montgomery drove the Germans far back toward the French province of Tunisia. Early in November of 1942 an enormous armada of British and American ships landed a large army under the American General Dwight D. Eisenhower in the French colonies in northwestern Africa. In the next few months the American and British troops occupied the whole northern coast of the continent and captured the German and Italian forces that had not made their way back to Italy.

In France and in the Balkans there was sometimes uncertainty as to what native leaders the Allies should recognize. General DeGaulle finally seemed to be the leader who could command the greatest support in France, and the faction known as Partisans, commanded by Marshal Tito (whose real name was Josip Broz), seemed strongest in Yugoslavia.

In July, 1943, General Eisenhower sent troops into Sicily, who overran the island and then moved into Italy itself. On July 25 it was announced that King Victor Emmanuel III had taken over complete authority in Italy and accepted Mussolini's resignation. A few weeks later the Italian government declared Italy to be at war with Germany.

The occupation of Italy by the Allies was slow. German troops put up a stubborn resistance as the Allies moved northward. The Allies did not occupy Rome until July, 1944. The Germans even rescued Mussolini from his guards, but the former "Duce" was killed by some of his own people in 1945.

Meantime severe fighting went on in the Pacific between the Americans and Japanese. The Japanese for a while even occupied two of the Aleutian Islands. But a large expedition sailing toward Hawaii was met off Midway Islands (June, 1942) and defeated. For the next two years, operations in the Pacific were of the kind that were sometimes referred to as "island-hopping." In the Solomon Islands, in New Guinea, and in the Caroline and Marshall Islands, positions were taken from the Japanese. In October,

1944, General MacArthur and Admiral Nimitz, working together, brought American forces back to the Philippines.

At last, in June, 1944, the invasion of France across the Channel from England seemed a safe undertaking. On June 6, troops under



THE AMERICAN FLAG GOES UP

A group of Marines raise the Stars and Stripes on Mt. Suribachi, Iwo Jima.

Eisenhower and Montgomery landed on the coast of Normandy and then moved into the interior and toward the Rhine. The Allies took Paris on August 25. Another Allied force landed on the south-eastern coast of France and moved eastward and northward into the country. In December the Germans made a desperate attempt to break through the Allied lines, forcing them back into a situation that was sometimes referred to as "the Bulge"; but the Germans did not get through.

Bombings from the air of centers of munition manufac-

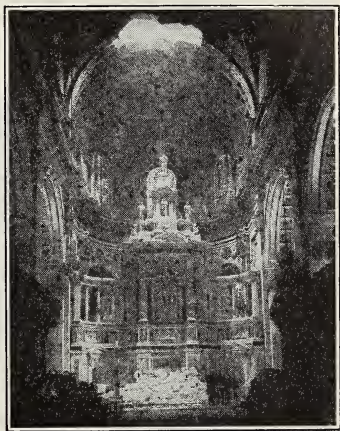
ture or other locations of military importance had been frequent. Though after 1941 the Germans could no longer hope to conquer England, they tried to prolong the war by their use of robot bombs and rocket projectiles fired high into the air. They expected that wherever these undirected weapons struck, they would cause much damage over an extended area and would thus have a demoralizing effect on the British people.

By the summer of 1944 the smaller nations which had submitted to the Nazis, either voluntarily or by compulsion, began to show that they had had enough. Rumania was the first of these countries to break away, and signed an armistice with Russia in August. Finland yielded in September, and then Bulgaria. When the government of Hungary tried to do the same, the Germans set up a puppet government of their own, but Russian troops overran a large part of the country.

The Allied leaders decided that they would not make the mistake which had been so unfortunate at the end of World War I, of waiting until the fighting was over before forming definite plans for peaceful coöperation afterwards. In the fall of 1944 delegates of the leading Allied nations met at an estate in Washington known as Dumbarton Oaks and drew up a sketch of what might be a constitution for the United Nations. The next spring the American nations, with the exception of Argentina, sent delegates to meet at the city of Mexico. There the so-called Act of Chapultepec was signed, in which the republics of the New World pledged to work together for their common defense. In April, 1945, delegates from about fifty nations met in San Francisco, and after two months' deliberation had ready for the approval of their governments the Charter of the United Nations. We shall have more to say about this later.

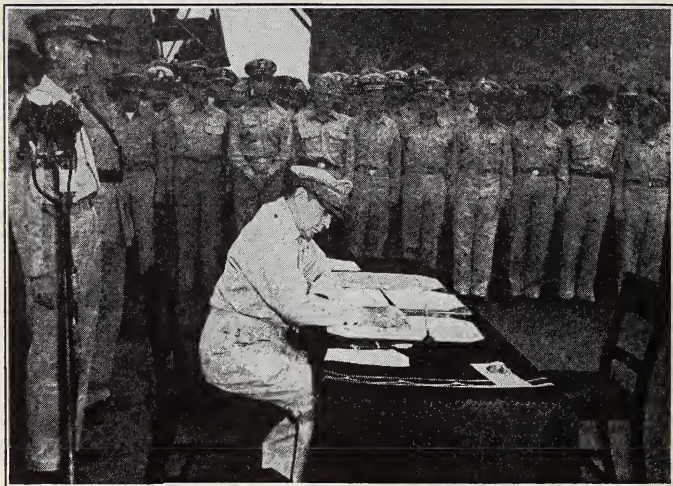
As the year 1945 began, no one could be sure when the fighting was going to stop, though it was plain that Germany and Japan had no longer any chance of winning. As the early months of that year went on, Russian troops occupied most of eastern Germany, and British and Americans crossed the Rhine and moved towards the center of the country. No longer was there any real authority to speak for Germany, for it is supposed that Hitler committed suicide in April. Admiral Doenitz took the responsibility of surrendering to the Allied armies what was left of German authority. The terms of this surrender were made public on May 8, and that date became known as VE Day (Victory in Europe).

Out in the islands of the Pacific, American fighting men had continued to take one island after another, usually by hard fighting,



ST. PAUL'S, LONDON
What a bomb did to the high altar.

on the way to Japan. Saipan, Iwo Jima, Okinawa, and others were scenes of bitter combat, toward the end of which Japanese "kamikaze" or suicide attacks by airplanes were frequent. On August 6 an "atomic" bomb, the first of a new kind, on which American, British, and Canadian scientists and military leaders had been experimenting, was dropped on the Japanese city of Hiroshima, and a few days later another was dropped on Nagasaki.



MACARTHUR ACCEPTS THE JAPANESE SURRENDER

U. S. Signal Corps

This ceremony took place on the USS. Missouri in Tokio Bay, September 1, 1945. Behind MacArthur are Lt. Gen. Wainwright, hero of Bataan and Corregidor, and Lt. Gen. Percival, British Commander who surrendered to the Japanese at Singapore.

Terrific damage was done. Just then the Russian government decided it was time to declare war on Japan, if it was going to have any share in Far Eastern settlements after the war.

The Japanese government, moved either by these two developments or by realization that its cause was lost, proposed to make peace on the basis of a statement drawn up at a conference of the heads of the American, British, and Russian governments in Germany and commonly called the Potsdam Declaration. August 14

the Allied governments announced the complete surrender of the Japanese. This was VJ Day, though the formal surrender took place on September 2, and it was still later before all the Japanese troops in different parts of the Far East surrendered.

President Roosevelt, who had led our country through the worst part of this terrible struggle, did not live to see the day of victory. Death came to him suddenly on April 12, 1945. His successor, Harry S. Truman, had the honor and responsibility of directing the government of the United States through the thrilling days in which the fighting came to an end. He went to Germany to meet Marshal Stalin of Russia and the British prime minister, to agree on plans for keeping order in Germany and setting up some kind of authority. To the surprise of many people, an election in Britain in July put Clement R. Attlee in as prime minister in place of Winston Churchill. Attlee represented the Labor Party, which now had the responsibility of trying to make peace.

399. Waiting for Peace in Asia. — It is too bad that people who have sacrificed and worked together during a war cannot continue to coöperate after the fighting is over. As the year 1950 opened, more than four years after VE Day and VJ Day, what was happening in the world was certainly not a happy peace. Indeed, people referred to some of the relations between nations as a "cold war."

One of the changed situations that gave prospects of working out well was the progress of the new Philippine Republic. No outside power was threatening its welfare, and definite improvement was appearing in the agriculture, industry, and commerce of the islands. The United States has the right to maintain some military and naval bases there. At the death of Manuel Roxas (ro'has), who was President when independence came into effect, Vice President Elpidio Quirino (kĩ-rě'no) took the office, and was reëlected in 1949. Carlos P. Romulo was honored by election as President of the General Assembly of the UN (1949).

In the Far East, General MacArthur was put in charge of the work of establishing the authority of the Allied powers in Japan, and of helping the Japanese people to set up something like a democratic government. The Japanese government asked that Emperor Hirohito continue as Emperor. MacArthur granted the request. The Emperor coöperated with MacArthur and tried

to set a good example to his people. On New Year's Day, 1946, he told his people that they need no longer look upon him as of divine origin. Since then he has often appeared in public.



U.S. Signal Corps

HIROHITO

MacArthur had a little trouble getting rid of the power of military men and politicians who had formerly controlled the country. But he was fortunate in not being bothered with advice from any other country to any great extent, and before long he had the satisfaction of feeling that the people in general accepted the new situation.

However, in Korea things did not go so smoothly. There the country was divided between the Russians in the northern and the Americans in the southern part. In southern Korea, a National Assembly was elected in May, 1948, which accepted a constitution establishing a republic, with Syngman Rhee as President (August 15). The Russians, however, refused to recognize this republic. They had set up a puppet government of their own in north Korea.

For a nation that was supposed to have been victorious in a great war, China was in bad shape after the Japanese surrender. Something very much like civil war was going on most of the time. In the northern part of the country, Chinese Communists refused to recognize the authority of Chiang Kai-shek. And whatever was left in Manchuria after the Japanese moved out and the Russians retired was taken over by the Chinese Communists, rather than by Chiang's government. The Communist leaders told the people of the regions where they were in control that they were going to relieve them from the burden of taxation and crookedness which they said Chiang's followers would force upon them; and in some cases they did bring about improvement.

Chiang's party, the Kuomintang, or Nationalists, claimed to be

the lawful leaders in China. There were some grafters among them and others who cared more for their own interests than they did for the welfare of the people. Chiang probably meant well, but may not have been strong enough to control the dishonorable elements in his party. The American government had sent General George C. Marshall to try to bring the two factions together. At first there seemed to be some chance of getting them to form a government which would include representatives of both sides. But the General became discouraged after a while, and came back to the United States, where he soon became Secretary of State.

Many Congressmen thought the Chinese government should be helped by aid from the United States by money and other commodities, but others were opposed to that policy. A new constitution was adopted for a Chinese republic, which was supposed to go into effect in 1948, but nothing was accomplished under it. Through 1948 and 1949 Communist forces steadily gained strength, until, at the end of 1949, they controlled most of the country. The Communist leader was named Mao Tse-tung. Chiang Kai-shek at first agreed to retire, but when things did not go well under his Vice President, Li Tsung-jen, he tried to resume charge again. He had to take refuge on the island of Formosa.

Not only in India, but all through eastern and southern Asia, World War II had aroused a spirit of unwillingness on the part of native races to continue under European domination. This was very noticeable in the region which we used to speak of as French Indo-China. The country known as Thailand or Siam had not been under European rule before the war, and the British made a treaty with it at the close of the war confirming its independence. But in the neighboring French province, sometimes called Annam, there was open rebellion.

The natives set up a government of their own under the name of Viet Nam and refused to accept the return of French authority. Their leader, Ho Chi Minh, had been at least half way a Communist, and there was not much doubt that if he and his followers actually got into power, there would be some open or secret tie-up with Communist interests in other countries. The French were determined that their former province should in some way continue

to recognize France. Many thought that the majority of the people did not care much for Communism, but they did want independence. At the beginning of 1949 the situation still was not finally settled.

A similar situation in some respects developed in what had been the Dutch possessions in the East Indies. While the Japanese were in control of these islands, they pretended that they were going to give them independence after the war. Whether the native people believed that or not, many of them were not willing to let any European authority be restored in the former Dutch possessions. They organized what they called the Indonesian Republic and fought the British when British troops undertook to clean up after the Japanese were through, and then fought the Dutch, who had expected to come back into their former position there.

The effort was made to reach an agreement between the leaders of the Indonesian Republic and the representatives of the Dutch government, which would establish the United States of Indonesia in about the same relation to the Netherlands that Canada has to Britain. Each side later accused the other of disregarding the provisions of the truce which had been promised, and some fighting ensued. But another proposal of that kind was accepted, by both the Dutch and the native leaders, and was proclaimed to be in effect on December 27, 1949. The first President of the new republic was named Sukarno and its first Prime Minister was Mohammed Hatta.

Iran, a part of which is next door to Russia, could not very well avoid having something to do with the Soviet government. Iran has oil, and though Russia has its own natural source of supply, it is interested in knowing where more can come from. When Russian troops were not withdrawn from Iran as promptly as was expected, the matter was taken up by the United Nations. Russia did not in this case try to insist on keeping its troops there, but was not pleased at having the question discussed by the United Nations. Iran also has oil in the region around the Persian Gulf. In that neighborhood, however, British and American oil interests are most active.

Arabia also has oil — a great deal of it, though that fact has not been realized until within comparatively recent years. British and

American oil companies have been willing to pay good money to Ibn Saud, the ruler of Saudi Arabia, for the privilege of getting access to this oil. They have proposed to construct pipe lines across Arabia to Haifa on the Mediterranean Sea, just as similar lines run from Iraq to the same eastern Mediterranean coast. Another Arabian country, Yemen, has gained sufficient recognition so that it was admitted as a member of the United Nations in 1947.



THE OIL SITUATION IN THE NEAR EAST

Courtesy New York Times

As disturbing as anything in all Asia, not only to those who live there but to many other countries, has been the situation in Palestine. When the arrangement was made for Britain to take charge of it under a mandate from the League of Nations, with the intention of establishing a national home for the Jews, the rest of the world looked on Palestine as simply a part of the former Turkish Empire, and neither Britain nor anybody else supposed that any serious trouble would develop there.

But after Palestine began to show improvement as the result of the combined Jewish and British activities, Arabs objected to

unlimited Jewish immigration. Toward the latter part of World War II the Arabs began to take great interest in western Asia and northern Africa. The so-called Arab League of seven countries was formed, a majority of whose people were Arabs — Egypt, Arabia, Jordan, Lebanon, Syria, Iraq, and Yemen, so that these countries might act together in any matter in which they were interested. When Pakistan was started as an independent country, it at once sided with the other Mohammedan nations in its attitude toward current problems.

After the British in 1939 began to limit the number of Jewish immigrants to Palestine, groups of extremists among the Jews started using bombs and other means of making things unpleasant for the British. A special committee appointed by the UN visited Palestine and recommended that the country be divided into a Jewish and an Arab district, with Jerusalem and the region immediately around it making up a third district, separate in government from the other two. The British decided to bring their "mandate" over Palestine to an end at 12 P.M. on May 14, 1948. At that time a proclamation by the Jewish leader David Ben-Gurion declared that a new state had come into being under the name *Israel*. The United States and some other countries recognized promptly the existence of the new government.

Fighting followed immediately between the troops of Israel and those of Egypt, Lebanon, Syria, and Transjordan. Count Folke Bernadotte of Sweden, as the representative of the UN, tried to bring about peace between the contending groups. After he was murdered, Dr. Ralph Bunche of the United States took his place as the UN agent.

During 1949 relations between Israel and its neighbors became quiet. Prime Minister Ben-Gurion continued to be the real leader of the country, though Dr. Chaim Weizmann has the title of President. The UN General Assembly voted once more to separate Jerusalem and put it under trusteeship to the United Nations. The leaders of both Israel and Jordan opposed this plan, and its outcome is still uncertain.

400. Waiting for Peace in Europe. — Restoring peace and orderly government through all Europe seemed as difficult as in Asia. The nations which suffered most during World War II

could hardly be expected to resume at once even as tolerable conditions as had existed before that war. The failure of the "Great Powers," especially Britain, the United States, and Russia, to agree on any policies of fundamental importance made progress toward peace practically impossible.

Germany was at first divided into three zones — Russian, British, and American — but later France was allowed to be responsible for a fourth zone. You recall that at the very beginning of the war in 1939, Russia helped itself to the eastern part of what had been Poland. Then when Germany was divided into different zones, the Russians took the eastern part, which was much the most important part of Germany for raising farm products. (Berlin was in this zone, but in the city itself there was a division among the four controlling powers which was to be the basis for more misunderstanding.)

The United States and Britain were able to work together about many matters affecting their two zones. An important achievement was the establishment in October, 1949, of a German Federal Republic, under a constitution which had been drawn up by a convention that met at Bonn. Konrad Adenauer became Chancellor of the new government, and it seemed likely that his government would coöperate with the western powers if the Federal Republic's anti-war pledge can be taken as first proof.

For some time the Russians refused to allow trade by rail or highway to go on between western Germany and the city of Berlin, which was surrounded by Russian-held territory. To relieve the people of Berlin from suffering and possible starvation, the United States and Britain undertook the tremendous enterprise which they called "Operation Vittles," of carrying by air tons upon tons of food, coal, and other needed items into the part of Berlin which they controlled. The Russians finally brought their "blockade" to an end.

The big powers did succeed in agreeing on peace treaties with some of their smaller enemies. Finland, Hungary, Rumania, and Bulgaria accepted such treaties, and one was also arranged with Italy, but an Austrian treaty was harder to make. In several of these countries there was bitter rivalry between political parties, especially in case one of those parties was in sympathy with the

Communist party in Russia. In Poland, Hungary, Rumania, Yugoslavia, and Czechoslovakia, the Communist party, though at first it was seldom the largest, succeeded, with Russian help of one kind or another, in getting the upper hand.

All these countries, whatever their government had been before World War II, now are, in name, republics. It makes a big difference, however, whether the people really have freedom to vote as they please, or whether Soviet Russia dictates what shall be done. The former royal families in Yugoslavia, Bulgaria, and Rumania went into exile. In Yugoslavia, Marshal Tito at first followed Russian policies faithfully; but later, while still claiming that his government was Communist, he refused to take Russian orders about many things. Bitter protests were made in western Europe and in the United States when the government of Hungary prosecuted Cardinal Joseph Mindszenty as a traitor, and when Bulgaria treated Protestant ministers similarly. In both cases false charges of conspiracy between these religious leaders and citizens of Britain or the United States were made.

In Greece during the latter part of World War II there was civil war. King George II resigned and a temporary government took charge for a while. At an election on September 1, 1946, a majority vote favored bringing King George back. At his death the next year, his brother Paul became king. By 1949 the government seemed to have established its authority fairly well.

In Italy King Victor Emmanuel III decided in May, 1946, to give up the throne and let his son Humbert take over. At an election held shortly afterward, the voters gave a margin of two million in favor of a republic instead of a monarchy, and King Humbert left Italy only about a month after his father. Since that time, Prime Minister Alcide de Gasperi has been the head of the government, with, first, Enrico de Nicola, and then Luigi Einaudi, as President. De Gasperi belonged to the Christian Democratic Party. In the latter part of 1947 extensive strikes were undertaken by Communists, but de Gasperi's government came through them more successfully than some had expected. A new constitution establishing the republic permanently went into effect January 1, 1948.

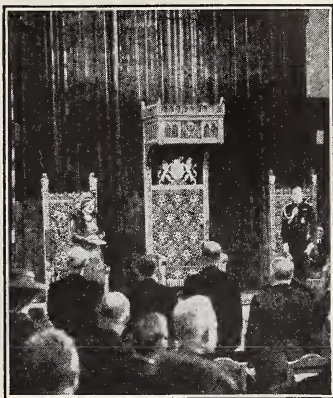
France also had been through a time of stress and uncertainty. At three elections since the fighting ended in 1945, Communists and

Socialists have cast good-sized votes. A new constitution which went into effect in October, 1946, provides for a National Assembly and a Council of the Republic as the two houses of the law-making body. The President and the Prime Minister continue to hold positions much as they did in the former Third Republic. General DeGaulle opposed the constitution which was actually adopted, and some have thought that he might become a sort of dictator. Robert Schuman became Prime Minister in 1947, and Henri Queuille in 1948, but Georges Bidault has held important office much of the time, and became Prime Minister in 1949.

Belgium and the Netherlands appear to have settled down, so far as their domestic affairs are concerned. The Belgian people have not yet invited their former king, Leopold III, to come back to the throne. In the Netherlands

Queen Wilhelmina decided to retire, and on September 4, 1948, her daughter Juliana took over the responsibilities of being queen. These two countries, with their little neighbor, Luxemburg, often spoken of as the Benelux countries, have made plans to work together in business relations and otherwise.

In Britain the Labor government, with Clement Attlee as Prime Minister, Ernest Bevin as Foreign Minister, and Stafford Cripps as minister in charge of the government's economic program, have had a very difficult situation to face. They have kept themselves in power for the full five-year period possible for the life of a House of Commons. Probably they deserve credit for their program of "austerity," which called for many sacrifices in regard to food, clothing, and other comforts, and naturally would not be popular. They even felt it necessary to "devalue" the British pound to about \$2.80 in United States dollars. But we need not be surprised



CROWN PRINCESS JULIANA TAKES THE OATH
AS REGENT

At the right is Prince Bernhard. In the center is Queen Wilhelmina's throne.

that their adoption of such socialist ideas as government operation of the Bank of England, the coal mines, and the country's transportation systems would be strongly opposed by some.

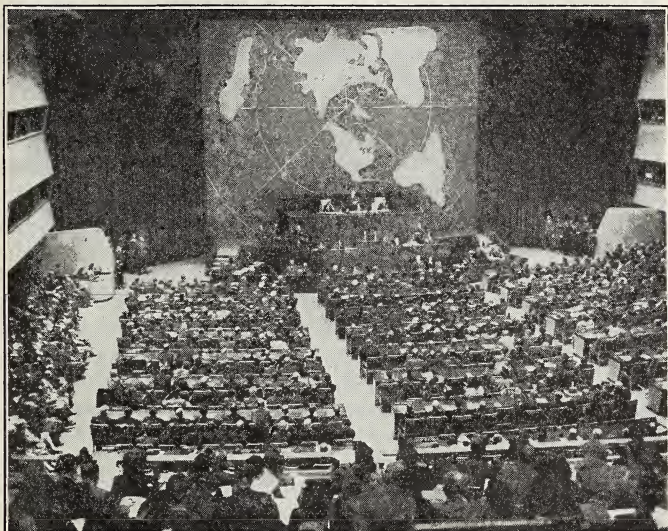
401. One World or Two? — The idea impressed itself strongly upon many people during World War II that nothing important could happen in any part of the world without affecting in some way most of the rest of it. Our civilization will be in danger of annihilation unless all the great nations will accept the fact that the world is really *one*, and that wars and modern destructive weapons are barbaric and should be outlawed. Wendell Willkie, Republican candidate for President against Franklin D. Roosevelt in 1940, visited many peoples and governments on a tour by air around the world as a sort of unofficial representative of the President. He did much to make this idea of "one world" popular, at least in his own country.

The most encouraging development in this direction since World War II is the formation and continuing existence of the United Nations. The preliminary plans for its establishment which we have already mentioned were put into effect October 24, 1945, when the necessary number of nations had given their approval to the Charter which was drawn up at San Francisco. The original membership included 51 nations. Others were admitted so that by 1949 the UN had 59 members. At least six other nations have been proposed, but not accepted, because they were either opposed by Russia or were looked upon as simply puppets for that country.

All the members of the United Nations are represented in its General Assembly, which meets in regular session at least once a year. At the meeting of the Assembly in the fall of 1947, a sort of Interim Committee was provided for, consisting of one representative of each member, who could discuss matters that might come up between regular sessions. This is often referred to as the Little Assembly.

The first President of the General Assembly was Paul-Henri Spaak of Belgium, who was followed by Oswaldo Aranha of Brazil, Herbert V. Evatt of Australia, and Carlos P. Romulo of the Philippine Republic. As Secretary-General, who has charge of the administrative side of the UN and who is elected for a five-year term, Trygve Lie of Norway was chosen.

Some other important features of the UN organization have the form of Councils whose members are chosen for limited terms which are so arranged as to have them expire at the rate of a certain number each year. The Security Council, which has eleven members, is responsible for promoting peace and security in the world. It may even call on the members of the UN for armed forces to carry out its decisions. Among the eleven members, the



Courtesy United Nations

GENERAL ASSEMBLY OF THE UNITED NATIONS

“big five” must always be included, and any one of these five has the right to veto a proposed action of the Council.

The Economic and Social Council has eighteen members. Its duty is to promote the economic, social, and cultural welfare of the members of the UN. Under it are several agencies which have responsibilities for particular activities. The Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) is intended to help nations coöperate in such fields as education, art, and science, and to make it easier for them to understand one another. The

purposes of the Food and Agriculture Organization, The International Labor Organization, The World Health Organization, and the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, can be imagined from their names.

The Trusteeship Council is composed of representatives of nations which are responsible for the welfare of peoples which have no strong government of their own. The dealings of governments with smaller subject peoples who are under their supervision are carried on under the approval of the Trusteeship Council.

The International Court of Justice takes the place of the court which the League of Nations had established and which was often known as the World Court. It has fifteen judges who are chosen by the Security Council and the General Assembly. Their regular terms will be nine years. Questions involving treaties or matters of international law and the performance of proper responsibilities of nations toward one another are examples of the kind of matters with which this court may deal.

The Headquarters of the United Nations are to be in New York City, where buildings are being constructed on an area given to the United Nations by John D. Rockefeller, Jr. The first session of the General Assembly was held at London, but most of the sessions of the agencies of the United Nations have been held at a place on Long Island known as Lake Success. The International Court of Justice, however, will meet at The Hague, in a building provided for the previous World Court by the gift of Andrew Carnegie. Special meetings of the different bodies under the United Nations may take place almost anywhere. In 1947, for instance, a Commission on Human Rights assembled in Geneva and after long discussion drew up a Declaration of Human Rights, which was approved by the General Assembly at its session in Paris (December 11, 1948). Mrs. Eleanor Roosevelt had a large part in the drawing up of the document. It is hoped that many governments will decide to accept it as a standard for their own policies.

It is not surprising that honest differences of opinion arise among representatives of as many nations as belong to the UN. It has been said that it is fine for the world to have an opportunity to know about such difficulties as these, and that certainly has happened in sessions of the Security Council and the

General Assembly of the UN. But many people in many countries had not expected that there would be such violent differences of opinion uttered in public, as have been expressed between the representatives of Soviet Russia and their associates on one side, and the nations of western Europe and America, especially Britain and the United States, on the other.

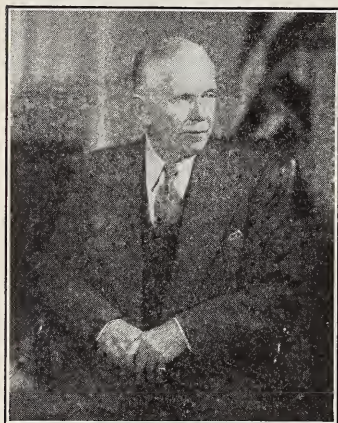
Underlying these differences of policy has been Russia's Communism and the plain intention of the Soviet leaders to advance such ideas wherever possible and to create dissatisfaction in other countries whose industrial life is based on the principles of capitalism. Not only in speeches delivered by Russian representatives at meetings of the UN, and in conferences at Moscow and London, but in Russian newspapers and on the radio, the Soviet leaders have repeatedly accused Britain and the United States of "imperialistic" purposes and of wrongful designs on Russia. This situation has reached the point where some have spoken of it as a "cold war."

Probably no nation wants an actual war, right now at least, but very rarely in a time of supposed peace have nations said and done to one another things as unpleasant as they have in recent months. Take the matter of the atomic bomb as one example of such differences. The UN created a Commission on Atomic Energy, and it was hoped this might work out some agreement among the nations, not only for promoting the study of the use of atomic power for peaceful purposes, but for preventing such use for purposes of war and destruction. The United States favored an arrangement under which whatever was done in this field should be open to inspection by agents of the United Nations. Russia would not agree to this idea, but demanded that the United States should first destroy all the bombs that might already be in its possession.

The setting up, by the direct or indirect use of force, of Communist governments in the countries which border on Russia, so disturbed President Truman of the United States that he went before Congress with a proposal that the United States should assist countries that were in danger from such outside pressure, to maintain governments that rest on the true will of their people. At his recommendation, Congress voted to use \$300,000,000 to

help Greece recover and maintain a free government, and \$100,000.000 to help Turkey defend itself. Special representatives were sent to Greece by the United States to assist that country in getting its difficulties straightened out. Late in 1947, a Communist group set up what it called a popular republic which, helped by Communist neighbors, caused the government serious annoyance.

Many of the countries of western Europe had suffered such drains on their national strength in connection with the war and from exceptionally unfavorable weather shortly afterward, that



MARSHALL

Harris and Ewing

there seemed to be serious doubt as to whether they could really get on their feet again without assistance from outside. In June, 1947, Secretary of State Marshall suggested in a public address that if these nations would get together and draw up some statement telling their most serious needs and the means by which they could be helped to meet those needs, the United States might then consider how it could help them out of their difficulties. This idea became commonly referred to as the Marshall Plan.

Sixteen countries, including those as widely separated as Turkey and Iceland and most of the nations in between, did hold a conference in Paris in an effort to do what Marshall suggested. Some countries which would have taken part in this conference failed to do so because the Russian government told them not to, and the Russian leaders made no secret of their intention to do everything possible to cause the Marshall Plan to fail. A new agency, the "Cominform," was organized by agents of the Communists in countries that had distinctly Communist governments and in France and Italy, to make it easier for these elements to work together, just as had been the purpose of the old Communist

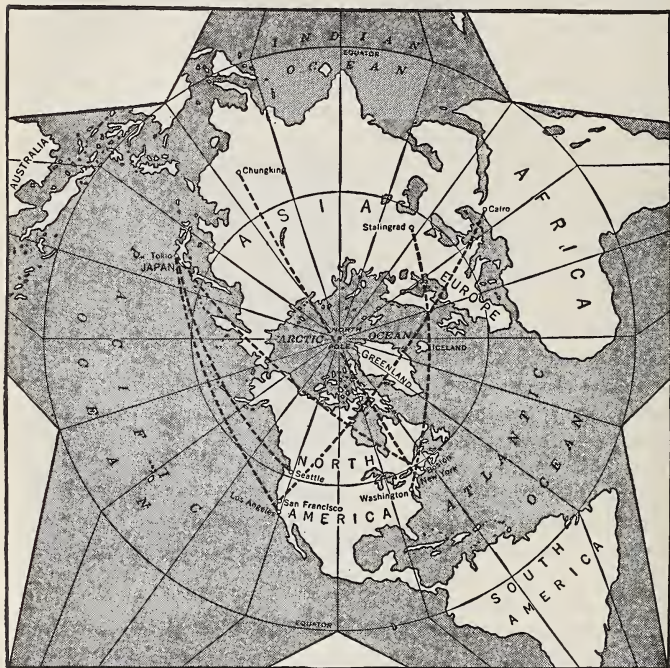
Internationale which Russia had at least pretended to abolish, back in 1943.

At the beginning of 1948 there was uncertainty about Secretary Marshall's ERP (European Recovery Program), which President Truman strongly recommended to Congress. "Stop-gap" aid of \$540,000,000 for France, Italy, Austria, and China was approved by Congress. But the President's recommendation for setting aside something like \$17,000,000,000 for assistance over a period of perhaps four years was another matter. Fortunately, there was sufficient co-operation between the President and his Cabinet and Republican leaders in Congress so that the proposition did not become a party issue. Somewhat over five billion dollars was voted by Congress as the first installment of a fund to carry out the ERP, who hoped that by 1952 its main purposes will be achieved. Paul G. Hoffman was chosen to head the administration of the program.

So here was the situation in the years of 1949 and 1950. Were nations going to act as if they were all living in one world? Or were they going to line up in two groups, one headed by Soviet Russia, the other by the U. S.? Russia wanted to build up its own power and extend the ideas of Communism wherever possible; the United States believed in democracy in government and in freedom from any kind of tyranny, political or economic. Britain, France, and their three small neighbors on the continent have agreed to take steps toward the establishment of a "Council of Europe," by means of which European countries might act together in promoting their best interests.

After giving serious thought to the matter, twelve governments, including the United States, Canada, Iceland, and most of the nations of western Europe, signed at Washington on April 4, 1949, a "North Atlantic Security Pact," under which they may co-operate for their own protection against aggression from any source. Russian leaders charged that this was just another "imperialistic" plan aimed at Russia, but the western powers had no intention of doing more than arranging an understanding that would enable them to defend themselves if they were attacked by tyrants or dictators. We shall watch with interest whatever developments may come from this agreement among them.

402. History's Message for the Future. — Of one thing we can be very certain. The world in which we shall live in years to come will be a very different world from that which we have known in the past. We may differ on just how to meet the new problems,



POLAR PROJECTION MAP OF THE NORTHERN HEMISPHERE

The global war has emphasized global geography, while the airplane has stressed the importance of "Great Circle" routes, as shown by the broken lines.

but we can agree that these problems will be vastly different from those which we have ever before had to solve.

Today geographers may ask us to look on the world from over the North Pole, "the top of the world." When we do that, we see that the great land masses of the earth seem nearer together: Europe and Asia and North America are not so far apart, and

Australia is not a land "down under" but simply an outpost. We may take a short cut from New York to Chungking, for instance, over the Pole or near it; we may also discover that from San Francisco to Tokyo is not so far via Alaska as via Hawaii.



WHAT THE ATOMIC BOMB DID TO HIROSHIMA

Some people used to talk about the future as the "air age." Of course, they did not mean that all our railroads and steamships are going to become useless and that all our automobiles will be displaced by helicopters; but even such changes would be little more revolutionary than railroads, autos, radios, and pictures in technicolor have already been.

Now people have begun to talk about the future as the "atomic age." The damage done by the atomic bombs dropped on Japan has aroused deep anxiety as to the destruction that might be wrought by a plane dropping a bomb on a big city without a declaration of war. Many believe that the control of the production of the bomb should be of an international character, for fear that there might be an unhealthy rivalry among nations to learn how to make

it and perhaps to use it. The possibility that a way may be found to use atomic energy in industry on an extensive scale also gives a rather wide range to one's imagination. How will it change human life, if scientists learn how to do this?

Though we will not admit that we are anywhere near the end of things, our study of history will be of value if we stop for a little while and glance back over the road we have traveled. It will help us to see the mistakes that men have made and to understand their successes.

Democracy is not the easiest form of government to operate, and freedom calls for more effort than does submission to a tyrant. Democracy and freedom are far better than their opposites, but we can have them only if we are willing to work for them. There is much yet to do, but surely not too much.

Another thing we learn from the past is that many of the misfortunes of people and nations have been in one sense their own fault. Sometimes we have not been willing to sacrifice for a good cause. Mussolini had something, when he instructed the boys of Italy to "believe, obey, fight," but it makes all the difference in the world what we believe in, whom we obey, and what we fight for. Democracies have not always been willing to realize this fact.

Sometimes it is easier to take for granted that everything is all right and will continue to stay that way, when in reality there are threats to our peace, our comfort, and our rights that may destroy them if we are not on our guard. "Eternal vigilance," we have been told, "is the price of liberty." Here is some advice that we can all take to heart:

It has been well said that you can never know too much, you can never be too wise, and you can never be too good. The more you know, the better you can understand the many problems of to-day; and the wiser you are, the better use you can make of your knowledge. But knowledge without goodness is dangerous, and without abundant knowledge, wisdom, and goodness, there is no hope for the world.

The poet Tennyson once wrote of a time when "the war-drum throbbed no longer and the battle flags were furled, in the Parliament of Man and the Federation of the World." Can we make such a vision a reality?

IDEAS TO STAY WITH US

The First World War put an end to some awkward situations in Europe, but it also introduced new ones. The League of Nations, which its founders hoped would help right-minded nations to work together, was unable to meet the situations that arose. Instead of the disappearance of tyrannical monarchs, new dictators as brutal as any in history made themselves masters of their own people and dreamed of controlling the world. In less than a quarter of a century after the peace at Versailles, freedom-loving nations once more were forced to fight against men who were trying to force others to submit to them. This time Germany, Italy, and Japan were engaged in that effort.

Complete victory came with the unconditional surrender of both Germany and Japan in 1945. The Allies had to take over the direction of affairs in both those countries in order to get rid of the men and the policies that had been responsible for the war. A conference at San Francisco completed the work on the Charter of the United Nations in June, 1945. The Charter was accepted by 51 nations, and seven others were added by 1949. During 1946 the organization of UN was completed and New York City was chosen for its permanent headquarters.

But peace was slow in coming. General MacArthur succeeded in restoring peaceful conditions in Japan, but there was civil war in China, with a seeming victory for the Communists. At first there was violence between the new dominions, India and Pakistan, when Britain withdrew from India. Native leaders gained strength in Indo-China and Indonesia, and the Philippines are now independent. Russian power forced Russia's western neighbors to come under Communist control, and Russia's reluctance to coöperate with other countries handicapped European recovery. The United States, through the Marshall Plan and the North Atlantic Pact, showed its desire to help western Europe withstand aggressors.

NAMES AND TERMS WE SHOULD UNDERSTAND

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|-----------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. Polish Corridor | 11. ILO | 20. MacDonald |
| 2. Saar Valley | 12. World Court | 21. Chamberlain |
| 3. Minorities | 13. Washington Conference | 22. Zionists |
| 4. Self-determination | 14. Locarno Conference | 23. Ebert |
| 5. Inflation | 15. Pact of Paris | 24. Stresemann |
| 6. Reparations | 16. Poincaré | 25. Hindenburg |
| 7. Dictators | 17. Daladier | 26. Hitler; Der Fuehrer |
| 8. League Council | 18. Maginot Line | 27. Nazis |
| 9. League Assembly | 19. Baldwin | 28. Totalitarian |
| 10. Secretariat | | 29. Mussolini; Il Duce |

- | | | |
|----------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 30. Fascisti | 47. Free French | 64. Vyacheslav Molotov |
| 31. Mustapha Kemal Ataturk | 48. RAF; Luftwaffe | 65. William F. Halsey |
| 32. U. S. S. R. | 49. Lend-Lease Act | 66. Chester W. Nimitz |
| 33. Soviet | 50. Act of Havana | 67. San Francisco Conference |
| 34. Joseph Stalin | 51. Pearl Harbor | 68. Potsdam Declaration |
| 35. Masaryk | 52. Atlantic Charter | 69. James F. Byrnes |
| 36. Beneš | 53. United Nations | 70. Ernest Bevin |
| 37. Metaxas | 54. Douglas MacArthur | 71. Trygve Lie |
| 38. Franklin D. Roosevelt | 55. Dwight D. Eisenhower | 72. Security Council |
| 39. "Mein Kampf" | 56. Bernard L. Montgomery | 73. Economic and Social Council |
| 40. Munich Conference | 57. Anthony Eden | 74. Trusteeship Council |
| 41. Rome-Berlin Axis | 58. Maxim Litvinof | 75. Georges Bidault |
| 42. Appeasement | 59. Chiang Kai-shek | 76. Alcide de Gasperi |
| 43. Blitzkrieg | 60. George C. Marshall | 77. Marshall Plan |
| 44. Winston Churchill | 61. Mark W. Clark | 78. North Atlantic Pact |
| 45. Vichy | 62. Harry S. Truman | 79. Ger. Fed. Republic |
| 46. Henri Pétain | 63. Clement R. Attlee | |

DATES WORTH REMEMBERING

- 1920 First meeting of the League of Nations
- 1928 Pact of Paris
- 1933 Hitler Chancellor in Germany
- 1938 Munich Conference
- 1939 German invasion of Poland
- 1940 German conquest of western Europe
- 1941 German attack on Russia
- 1941 Japanese attack on the United States and Great Britain
- 1943 Allied conquest of North Africa; Surrender of Italy
- 1944 Invasion of Europe
- 1945 VE Day, May 8; VJ Day, August 14
- 1945 San Francisco Conference; United Nations
- 1949 North Atlantic Security Pact

INTERESTING SUBJECTS YOU MAY LIKE TO KNOW ABOUT

- The Organization of the League of Nations
- The Relations between the United States and the League of Nations
- The Washington Conference of 1921 and 1922
- The Making of the Pact of Paris and Its Importance
- Hitler and the Nazi Movement
- Mussolini and His Policies
- Palestine since World War I
- Mustapha Kemal and the Rise of the New Turkey
- Nikolai Lenin
- Changes in Russia under Soviet Rule

The International Relations of the United States since 1920
 How Japan Made War on the Western Powers
 Leaders of the United Nations
 War in the Southwestern Pacific
 The Invasion of North Africa
 The Career of General MacArthur
 Conferences of Leaders of the "Big Four"
 The Organization of the United Nations
 Problems of Reconversion to Peace
 The Cold War
 The New Situation in Germany

INTERESTING PROJECTS YOU MAY LIKE TO UNDERTAKE

1. Arrange an open forum in which the nations of Europe are each represented by a speaker who is prepared to discuss briefly the problems that have affected his particular country during the period between the two World Wars.
2. Arrange a forum discussion on the question: How can the United States contribute best toward bringing world peace?
3. Hold a conversation among some Turks during the early stages of the changes introduced by Kemal.
4. Hold an imaginary conference among the United Nations leaders at Cairo, Teheran, Yalta, Potsdam, Moscow, or London.
5. Arrange a conversation between an optimist and a pessimist who are discussing the situation of the world today.
6. Hold a forum discussion on: "What is the best method of future world coöperation?"

PLACES FOR FURTHER READING

Abend, <i>Ramparts of the Pacific</i>	Langsam, <i>The World since 1914</i>
Baker, <i>The League of Nations at Work</i>	Lyons, <i>Assignment in Utopia</i>
Baker, <i>Woodrow Wilson and World Settlement</i>	Magruder, <i>National Governments and International Relations</i>
Byas, <i>The Japanese Enemy</i>	Mann, <i>The Lights Go Down</i>
Byrnes, <i>Speaking Frankly</i>	Mathews, <i>The Fruits of Facism</i>
Churchill, <i>The Gathering Storm; Their Finest Hour; The Grand Alliance</i>	Miller, <i>You Can't Do Business with Hitler</i>
Cressey, <i>The Basis of Soviet Strength</i>	Moon, <i>Imperialism and World Politics</i>
Duranty, <i>I Write as I Please</i>	Ogg, <i>The Governments of Europe</i>
Eisenhower, <i>Crusade in Europe</i>	Rauschnig, <i>The Voice of Destruction</i>
Guedalla, <i>Mr. Churchill</i>	Sherwood, <i>Roosevelt and Hopkins</i>
Gunther, <i>Inside Europe; Inside Asia</i>	Shirer, <i>Berlin Diary</i>
Henderson, <i>Failure of a Mission</i>	Smith, <i>Last Train from Berlin</i>
Hunt, <i>America Organizes to Win the War</i>	Smith, <i>My Three Years in Moscow</i>
	Snow, <i>The Pattern of Soviet Power</i>
	Stimson, <i>On Active Service</i>

Streit, *Union Now*

Taylor, *America in the New Pacific*

Temperley, *Japan: a World Problem*

Thompson, *Let the Record Speak*

Tolischus, *They Wanted War*

Tolischus, *Tokyo Road*

Tracy, *Our Country, Our People, and
Theirs*

Waln, *Reaching for the Stars*

Willkie, *One World*

Helpful volumes in the Headline Series, published by the Foreign Policy Association, include the following titles: *Overseas America, America's Foreign Policies, The Good Neighbors, War on the Short Wave, Shadow over Asia, East and West of Suez, Human Dynamite, Mainsprings of World Policy, Skyways of Tomorrow, After Victory, Look at Africa, On the Threshold of World Order, Face to Face with Russia, Pacific Asia: a Political Atlas, Atomic Challenge, Freedom's Charter, Empire's End in Southeast Asia.*

Current events magazines such as *Time, Newsweek, Scholastic, American Observer, Our Times, Current History*, and newspapers of high quality such as the *New York Times*, constantly have articles dealing with people and events either of current importance or significant in recent history.

SOME SUGGESTIONS FOR GENERAL REVIEW

1. Have each pupil hand in a list of the ten outstanding individuals in the last 300 years who appear to him to have had the greatest influence on the progress of mankind. Tabulate these lists. Conduct an open forum for the discussion of the names listed. It should be understood that each pupil will be prepared to give a summary of the achievements of the ten whom he has chosen and to defend them against the preferences of other members of the class. What ten have the highest total vote?

2. Prepare in a similar way a list of the ten most important events in the last 300 years and discuss them in the way suggested.

3. Prepare a list of fifteen or twenty persons from the beginning of history to the present whose teachings or achievements obviously have made the world different from what it would otherwise have been. Be ready to discuss the value of the services of each person mentioned.

4. Arrange a "Who Am I?" contest on important characters in world history in the last 300 years.

5. Review the topics covered by the various units, through quizzes on historical vocabulary, ideas to stay with us, dates, and geographical background. Committees of the class might prepare special review programs involving such items as those suggested here.

INDEX

KEY TO PRONUNCIATION

ā as in cāne	á as in ábove	ē as in hēr	ő as in shőp	ū as in rŭle
ǣ as in cǣn	ē as in ēke	ī as in bīte	ōō as in fōōd	ŭ as in rŭn
ǣ as in cār	ě as in ěnd	ĭ as in bĭll	ōō as in fōōt	û as in būrn
ą as in ąll	ê as in bittèn	ō as in ōld	ou as in ɔut	ü as in menü

When the correct pronunciation of a proper name corresponds to the one naturally suggested for an English word by any particular combination of letters, no special marks for pronunciation are used, except possibly to indicate the syllable on which accent is placed. It is believed that by the use of the vowel marks in the accompanying list, pronunciations can be indicated with sufficient accuracy, rather than by expanding the number of marks used to any further extent in order to show very fine distinctions of sound.

Pronunciations are given in the Index for all words that should offer even the slightest difficulty. Such pronunciations are sometimes shown in more detail than those given in the text, where special attention is paid to the accent and to letters most likely to be mispronounced.

It may also be noted that in the Index the first name and other initials of the names of historical characters are regularly given, without using titles, whereas in the text titles and family names without first names may be used.

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